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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the 10 issues of "World Eagle" issued during the 1990-1991 school year. World Eagle is a monthly social studies resource in which demographic and geographic information is presented in the forms of maps, graphs, charts, and text. Each issue of World Eagle has a section that focuses on a particular topic, along with other materials not necessarily related to the focus section. The focus sections of these issues are: the American family, Germany, the developing world, U.S. and world population, U.S. and world energy, the far east, education and employment, world product and trade, federal budget priorities, and U.S. and world food. (DB)

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WORLD EAGLE

The Monthly Social Studies Resource

Data - Maps - Graphs

September 1990 - June 1991

Vol. XIV, No.1 - 10

Issue No. 131 - 140

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World Eagle

The Monthly Social Studies Resource
Data • Maps • Graphs

SEPTEMBER 1990
Vol. XIV, No. 1
Issue No. 131
Since 1977 *ISSN 0193-7871*

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GERMANY

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October	**Germany**	**March**	**Education and Employment**
November	**The Developing World**	**April**	**World Product and Trade**
December	**U.S. and World Population**	**May**	**Federal Budget Priorities**
January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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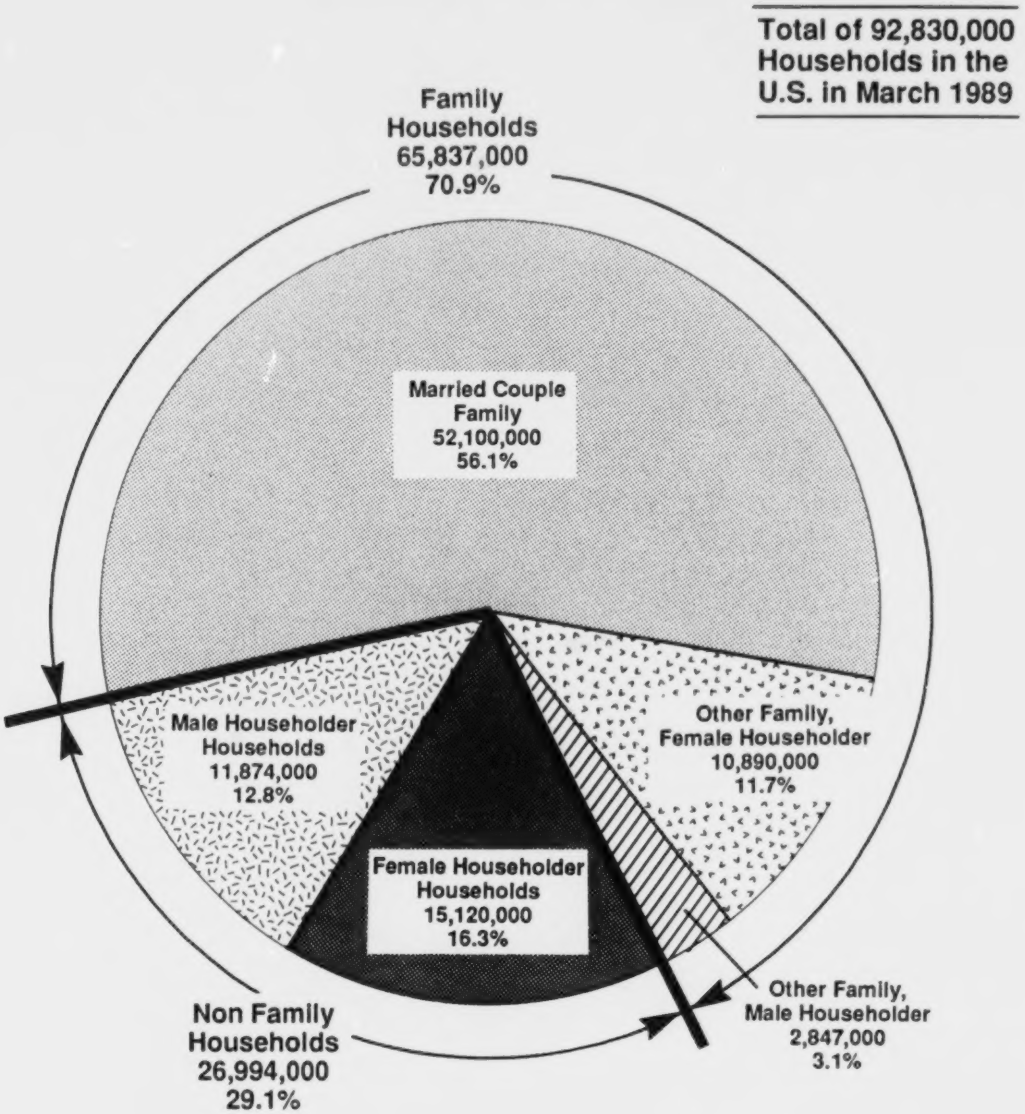
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS IN U.S. CONTINUES TO GROW; 70.9% ARE FAMILY HOUSEHOLDS



About 84% of Non Family Households are comprised of people who live alone (22,708,000)

See table on next page.

Source: World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990, Table 55. Page 45.

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HOUSEHOLDS, FAMILIES, SUBFAMILIES, MARRIED COUPLES, AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS: 1960 TO 1989

[**In thousands, except as indicated.** As of **March.** Based on Current Population Survey; includes members of Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post, but excludes all other members of Armed Forces; see text, section 1 and Appendix III. For definition of terms, see text, section 1. Minus sign (–) indicates decrease. See also *Historical Statistics, Colonial Times to 1970,* series A 288–319]

TYPE OF UNIT	1960	1970	1975	1980	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	PERCENT CHANGE	
										1970–1980	1980–1989
Households	**52,799**	**63,401**	**71,120**	**80,776**	**86,789**	**88,458**	**89,479**	**91,066**	**92,830**	**27.4**	**14.9**
Average size	3.33	3.14	2.94	2.76	2.69	2.67	2.66	2.64	2.62	(x)	(x)
Family households	44,905	51,456	55,563	59,550	62,706	63,558	64,491	65,133	65,837	15.7	10.6
Married couple	39,254	44,728	46,951	49,112	50,350	50,933	51,537	51,809	52,100	9.8	6.1
Male householder [1]	1,228	1,228	1,485	1,733	2,228	2,414	2,510	2,715	2,847	41.1	64.3
Female householder [1]	4,422	5,500	7,127	8,705	10,129	10,211	10,445	10,608	10,890	58.3	25.1
Nonfamily households	7,895	11,945	15,557	21,226	24,082	24,900	24,988	25,933	26,994	77.7	27.2
Male householder	2,716	4,063	5,912	8,807	10,114	10,648	10,652	11,310	11,874	116.8	34.8
Female householder	5,179	7,882	9,645	12,419	13,968	14,252	14,336	14,624	15,120	57.6	21.7
One person	6,896	10,851	13,939	18,296	20,602	21,178	21,128	21,889	22,708	68.6	24.1
Families	**45,111**	**51,586**	**55,712**	**59,550**	**62,706**	**63,558**	**64,491**	**65,133**	**65,837**	**15.4**	**10.6**
Average size	3.67	3.58	3.42	3.29	3.23	3.21	3.19	3.17	3.16	(x)	(x)
Married couple	39,329	44,755	46,971	49,112	50,350	50,933	51,537	51,809	52,100	9.7	6.1
Male householder [1]	1,275	1,239	1,499	1,733	2,228	2,414	2,510	2,715	2,847	39.9	64.3
Female householder [1]	4,507	5,591	7,242	8,705	10,129	10,211	10,445	10,608	10,890	55.7	25.1
Unrelated subfamilies	**207**	**130**	**149**	**360**	**526**	**505**	**566**	**537**	**473**	**176.9**	**31.4**
Married couple	75	27	20	20	46	45	37	38	49	(B)	(B)
Male reference persons [1]	47	11	14	36	85	63	77	46	26	(B)	(B)
Female reference persons [1]	85	91	115	304	395	397	452	452	398	234.1	30.9
Related subfamilies	**1,514**	**1,150**	**1,349**	**1,150**	**2,228**	**2,256**	**2,286**	**2,397**	**2,278**	**-**	**98.1**
Married couple	871	617	576	582	719	726	712	765	775	–5.7	33.2
Father-child [1]	115	48	69	54	116	131	123	152	103	(B)	(B)
Mother-child [1]	528	484	705	512	1,392	1,399	1,451	1,480	1,400	5.8	173.4
Married couples	**40,200**	**45,373**	**47,547**	**49,714**	**51,114**	**51,704**	**52,286**	**52,613**	**52,924**	**9.6**	**6.5**
With own household	39,254	44,728	46,951	49,112	50,350	50,933	51,537	51,809	52,100	9.8	6.1
Without own household	946	645	596	602	764	771	749	803	824	–6.7	36.9
Percent without	2.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.6	(x)	(x)
Unrelated individuals	**11,092**	**14,988**	**19,100**	**26,426**	**30,518**	**31,506**	**31,914**	**33,124**	**34,499**	**76.3**	**30.5**
Nonfamily householders	7,895	11,945	15,557	21,226	24,082	24,900	24,988	25,933	26,994	77.7	27.2
Secondary individuals	3,198	3,043	3,543	5,200	6,436	6,606	6,926	7,191	7,505	70.9	[illegible]
Male	1,746	1,631	2,087	3,006	3,743	3,764	3,947	4,081	4,241	84.3	41.1
Female	1,451	1,412	1,456	2,194	2,693	2,842	2,978	3,110	3,264	55.4	48.8

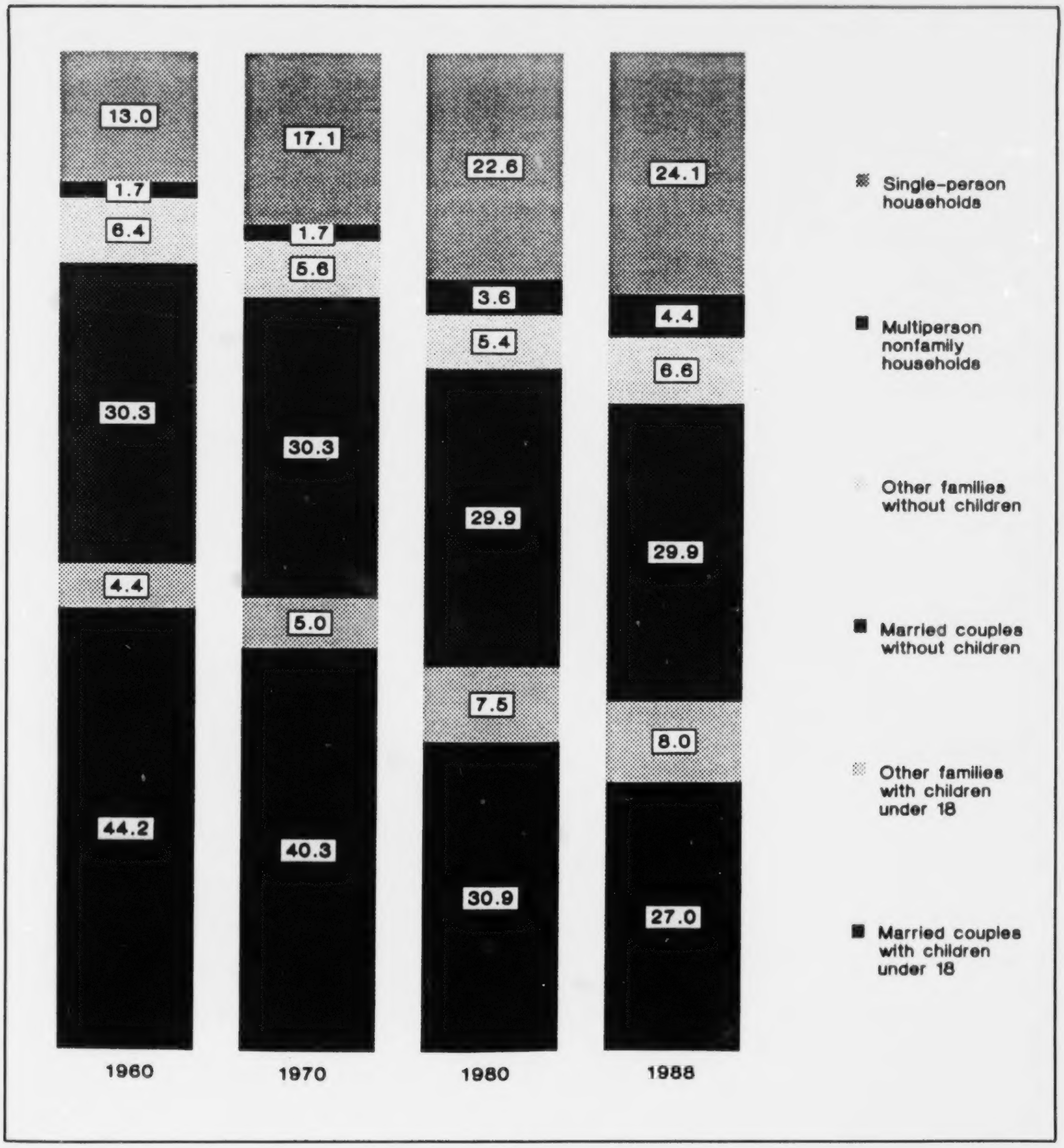
- Represents zero. B Not shown; base less than 75,000. X Not applicable. [1] No spouse present.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports,* series P-20, No. 441.

←—— See chart on preceding page.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990. P.45. Table 55.

COMPOSITION OF AMERICAN HOUSEHOLDS, SELECTED YEARS, 1960-1988



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review, March 1990. P.10.

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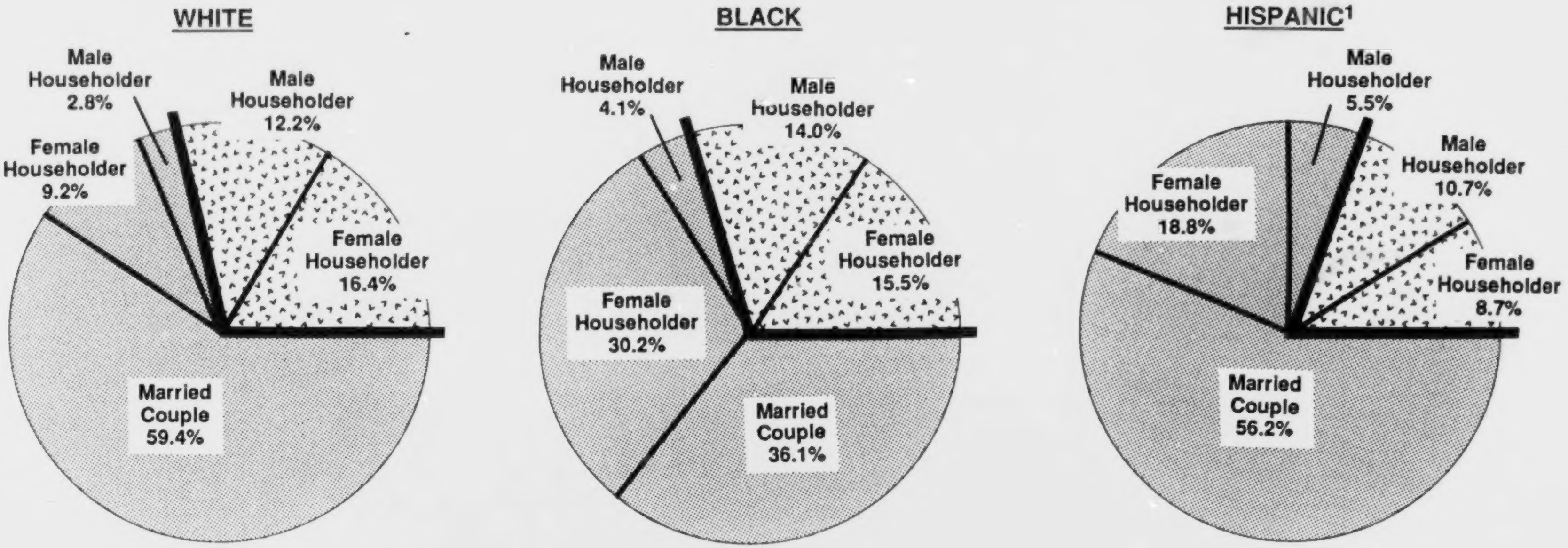
COMPOSITION OF AMERICA'S HOUSEHOLDS, BY RACE: 1988



WHITE

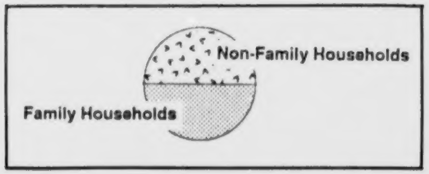
Family Households	56,044,000
Non-Family Households	22,426,000
TOTAL	78,469,000

BLACK

Family Households	7,177,000
Non-Family Households	3,010,000
TOTAL	10,186,000

HISPANIC[1]

Family Households	4,588,000
Non-Family Households	1,109,000
TOTAL	5,698,000



[1] Hispanic persons may be of any race.

World Eagle charts. Data from 1990 Statistical Abstract of the United States. P. 46. Table 57.

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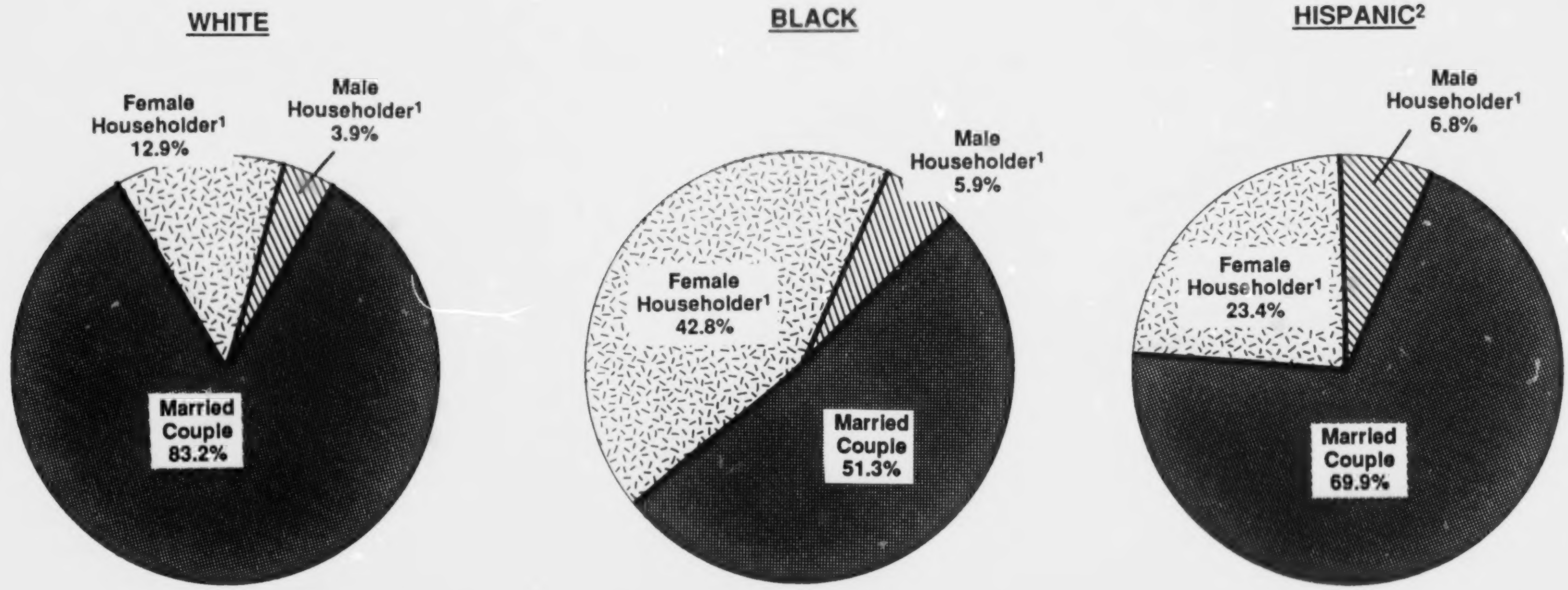
COMPOSITION OF AMERICA'S FAMILY HOUSEHOLDS, BY RACE: 1988



WHITE

56,044,000 Family Households

BLACK

7,177,000 Family Households

HISPANIC[2]

4,588,000 Family Households

[1] No spouse present

[2] Hispanic persons may be of any race

World Eagle charts. Data from 1990 Statistical Abstract of the United States. P. 46. Table 57.

CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS OLD, BY PRESENCE OF PARENTS: 1970 TO 1988

[As of **March**. Excludes persons under 18 years old who maintained households or family groups. Based on Current Population Survey; see headnote, table 65]

RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, AND YEAR	Number (1,000)	PERCENT LIVING WITH—							
		Both parents	Mother only					Father only	Neither parent
			Total	Divorced	Married, spouse absent	Single [1]	Widowed		
ALL RACES [2]									
1970	69,162	85.2	10.8	3.3	4.7	.8	2.0	1.1	2.9
1980	63,427	76.7	18.0	7.5	5.7	2.8	2.0	1.7	3.6
1985	62,475	73.9	20.9	8.5	5.4	5.6	1.5	2.5	2.7
1987	62,932	73.1	21.3	8.5	5.2	6.3	1.3	2.6	2.9
1988	63,179	72.7	21.4	7.9	5.3	6.8	1.3	2.9	3.0
WHITE									
1970	58,790	89.5	7.8	3.1	2.8	.2	1.7	.9	1.8
1980	52,242	82.7	13.5	7.0	3.9	1.0	1.7	1.6	2.2
1985	50,836	80.0	15.6	8.1	4.1	2.1	1.3	2.4	2.0
1987	51,112	79.1	16.1	8.4	4.0	2.7	1.1	2.6	2.2
1988	51,030	78.9	16.0	8.0	4.0	2.9	1.1	2.9	2.2
BLACK									
1970	9,422	58.5	29.5	4.6	16.3	4.4	4.2	2.3	9.7
1980	9,375	42.2	43.9	10.9	16.2	12.8	4.0	1.9	11.9
1985	9,479	39.5	51.0	11.3	12.4	24.8	2.5	2.9	6.6
1987	9,612	40.1	50.4	9.6	12.0	26.3	2.6	2.5	7.0
1988	9,699	38.6	51.1	8.4	12.1	28.2	2.5	3.0	7.4
HISPANIC [3]									
1970	[4] 4,006	77.7	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1980	5,459	75.4	19.6	5.9	8.2	4.0	1.5	1.5	3.5
1985	6,057	67.9	26.6	7.3	11.1	6.5	1.7	2.2	3.3
1987	6,647	65.5	27.7	8.0	9.3	8.8	1.6	2.8	4.0
1988	6,786	66.3	27.2	7.9	8.8	8.8	1.6	3.0	3.6

NA Not available. [1] Never married. [2] Includes other races not shown separately. [3] Hispanic persons may be of any race. [4] All persons under 18 years old.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, series P-20, No. 433 and earlier reports.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990. P.53. Table 69.

MOST AMERICANS LIKE THEIR HOMES AND NEIGHBORHOODS, CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS

About seven out of ten American households gave high marks to the quality of their homes and neighborhoods, according to an American Housing Survey conducted by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau for the Department of Housing and Urban Development.

On a scale up to 10, more than a third gave perfect 10s to their dwelling and more than a third gave a 10 to their neighborhood. More than a third also gave ratings of either 8 or 9.

The following table shows a breakdown of the 1 through 10 range of the preference scale for housing and neighborhood by total, owners, and renters:

HOUSING			
Scale	Total	Owner	Renter
1(worst)	1%	0	2%
2 to 3	1%	1%	3%
4	1%	1%	3%
5	8%	5%	12%
6	5%	4%	8%
7	12%	9%	16%
8	23%	23%	24%
9	14%	15%	11%
10(best)	36%	42%	23%

NEIGHBORHOOD			
Scale	Total	Owner	Renter
1 (worst)	2%	1%	3%
2 to 3	2%	1%	4%
4	2%	1%	3%
5	8%	7%	11%
6	5%	4%	7%
7	10%	9%	12%
8	21%	21%	21%
9	13%	14%	11%
10(best)	35%	39%	28%
No Neighborhood	1%	1%	1%

The survey showed a total of 102.7 million units in the nation. Of these units, 90.9 million were occupied, 64 percent by owners and 36 percent by renters. Some 10.3 million were occupied by Black households and 5.6 million by Hispanics.

The survey shows that the median value of owner-occupied homes rose to $68,000 in 1987 from $62,100 in 1985. Values of owner-occupied homes in central cities gained $5,900 to $68,000, while those in the suburbs increased $9,100 to $82,500. Among the regions, homes in the Northeast gained the most in value, up $25,500 to $100,300. Home value in the Midwest increased $3,500 to $55,900.

Homeowners moving within a year of the survey chose more expensive housing, with a median value of $75,200. Their suburban homes had a median value of $89,100.

continued →

HOMES AND NEIGHBORHOODS continued

In addition to data on value, the survey presents data on the presence of equipment and amenities:

Selected Equipment in 1987

Selected Equipment	TOTAL Owners	TOTAL Renters	Black Owners	Black Renters	Hispanic Owners	Hispanic Renters
Dishwasher	55%	31%	26%	17%	40%	20%
Washing machine	93%	42%	85%	37%	90%	35%
Clothes dryer	84%	33%	62%	19%	69%	18%
Disposal in kitchen sink	38%	36%	21%	25%	39%	32%
Central air conditioning	40%	29%	29%	25%	35%	22%

Selected Amenities in 1987

Selected Amenities	TOTAL Owners	TOTAL Renters	Black Owners	Black Renters	Hispanic Owners	Hispanic Renters
Porch, deck, balcony or patio	83%	61%	77%	56%	76%	50%
Usable fireplace	40%	12%	22%	7%	29%	8%
2 or more living rooms or recreation rooms	43%	9%	35%	6%	30%	5%
Garage or carport	72%	29%	52%	15%	68%	28%

The report contains data on finances, housing and neighborhood qualities, recent movers, urban and rural characteristics, and energy related characteristics.

Since data in this report are from a survey, they are subject to sampling variability.

Copies of the report, American Housing Survey for the United States in 1987, Series H-150/87-NA, are available prepaid form the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release CB90-45, March 14, 1990

FOCUS Section

THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE (FLC): 1985

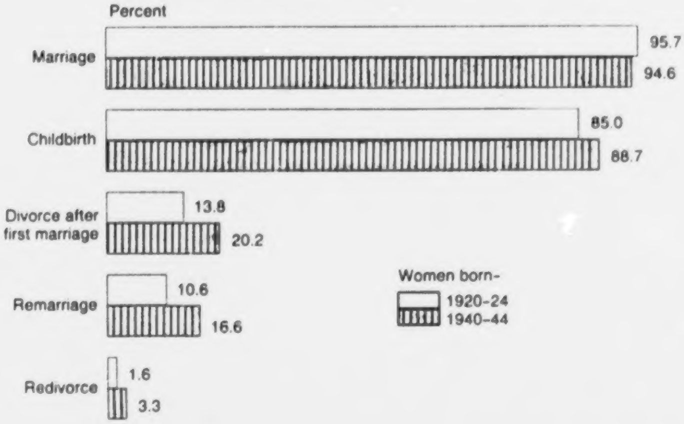
.... Studies estimate that at least one-half of all recent marriages can be expected to end in divorce and that the majority of divorced persons will eventually remarry (Norton and Moorman, 1987; Martin and Bumpass, 1989). The addition of these stages brings new complexity to FLC analysis insofar as the extended FLC measures begin to describe events occurring to more than one family. For example, divorce can be defined as effectively ending the existence of one family while creating one or more new families. Similarly, remarriage can be defined as creating a new family while ending one or more previously existing families.

The figure illustrates the character of change in life course experiences of women approximately one generation apart. It shows the frequency with which women experienced various life course events according to whether they were born during the 1920-24 or 1940-44 periods. Clearly, the younger women are more likely to have ended a marriage in divorce, to have remarried, and to have redivorced. There is no statistical difference between the two groups of women in the proportion ever married. A higher proportion of the younger women had ever borne a child reflecting the generally declining rate of childlessness among women born between 1900 and 1940 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984 and U.S. National Center for Health Statistics, 1988). (For cohorts born in 1940-44 and later, the rate of childlessness has increased.) Thus, the most dramatic changes between the two groups of women have involved the likelihood of divorcing and remarrying.[1] Redivorcing is also increasing but affects such a small minority of women that it is not reasonable to consider it a major life cycle event. The differences between the two groups of women in the proportion experiencing divorce, remarriage, and redivorce will become

---

[1] The increase in the proportion of women remarrying between the 1920-24 birth cohort and the 1940-44 birth cohort (+6.0 percent) is statistically different from the increase in the proportion of women having children between the same two cohorts (+3.7 percent) at the 87-percent level of confidence. The usual minimum level of confidence accepted by the Bureau of the Census is 90 percent.

Figure
Women Who Experienced Certain Life Cycle Events, by Year of Woman's Birth: June 1985



Source: Excerpted from article by Arthur J. Norton and Louisa F. Miller in U.S. Bureau of the Census's Current Population Reports, Special Studies Series P-23, No. 165 "Work and Family Patterns of America Women", March 1990.

HOW TO CALCULATE THE U.S. DIVORCE RATE, CORRECTLY

The following Letter to the Editor was penned by Professor Neil G. Bennett, Department of Sociology, Yale University, and appeared in The New York Times Sunday, May 27, 1990. P. 12. Reprinted here with permission of the author.

To the Editor:

In his attempt to debunk the commonly accepted 50 percent U.S. divorce rate, William Manchester (letter, March 20) falls victim to a misunderstanding of how demographers calculate this statistic. Although his logic is seductive, he is incorrect when he suggests that demographers simply divide the 1.2 million divorces by the 2.4 million marriages that took place in 1988. Instead, we use what is called a life table approach, which, in its most basic form, essentially follows a group of couples married at a given time for a number of years and calculates the proportion of marriages that remain intact after, let's say, 20 years.

To obtain his 13 percent divorce rate, Mr. Manchester divides the percentage of Americans who are currently divorced (9.3) by the percentage who have ever been married among those 18 or over (71.8). However, if one is interested in the proportion of marriages that ultimately end in divorce, then we must add two more groups of people to the numerator: currently married Americans who either (1) have not yet divorced but will do so eventually or (2) have already divorced and have since remarried. When one accounts for these additional groups, it is easy to see that substantially more than 13 percent of all marriages break up.

Last, by modifying the life table technique, demographers are able to project the eventual divorce rate of recently married couples, for whom we do not have 20 years' worth of information. It is this group to whom the 50 percent figure, even 60 percent by some estimates, applies.

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AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

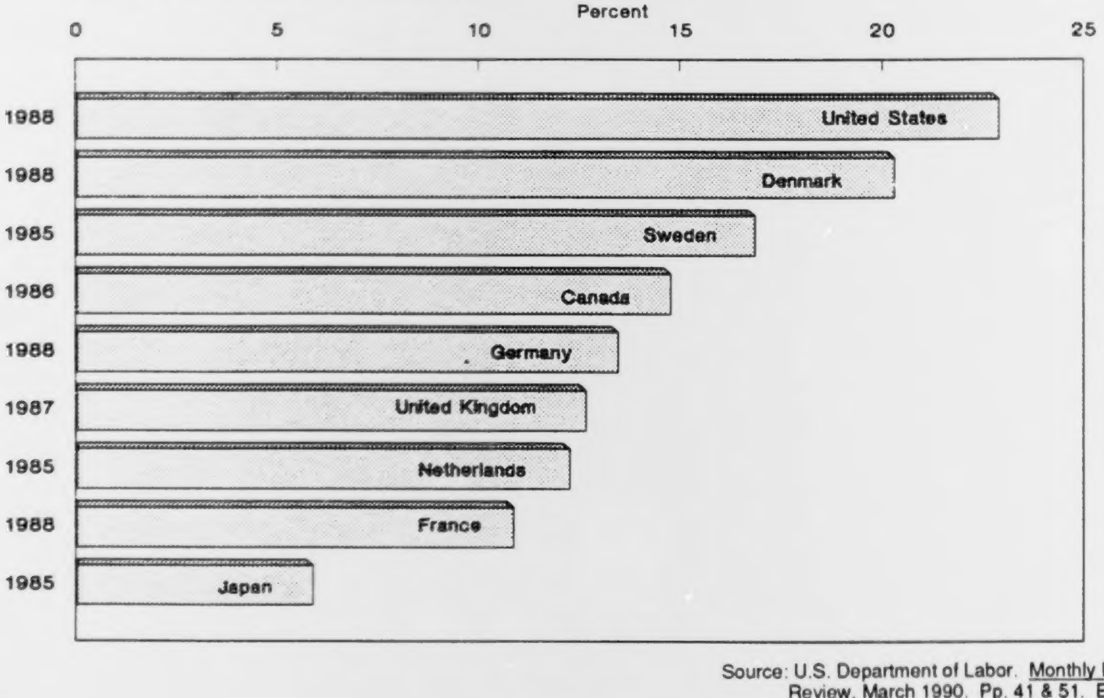
Families are becoming smaller and less traditional as fertility rates fall and more persons live alone; Scandinavian countries are the pacesetters in developing nontraditional forms of family living, but the United States has the highest incidence of divorce and of single-parent households.

Far-reaching changes are occurring in family structures and household living arrangements in the developed countries. The pace and timing of change differ from country to country, but the general direction is the same practically everywhere. Families are becoming smaller, and household composition patterns over the past several decades have been away from the traditional nuclear family—husband, wife, and children living in one household—and toward more single-parent households, more persons living alone, and more couples living together out of wedlock. Indeed, the "consensual union" has become a more visible and accepted family type in several countries. The one-person household has become the fastest growing household type.

In conjunction with the changes in living arrangements, family labor force patterns have also undergone profound changes. Most countries studied have experienced a rapid rise in participation rates of married women, particularly women who formerly would have stayed at home with their young children.

Scandinavian countries have been the pacesetters in the development of many of the nontraditional forms of family living, especially births outside of wedlock and cohabitation outside of legal marriage. Women in these societies also have the highest rates of labor force participation. However, in at least two aspects, the United States is setting the pace: Americans have, by far, the highest divorce rate of any industrial nation, as well as a higher incidence of single-parent households, one of the most economically vulnerable segments of the population. Japan is the most traditional society of those studied, with very low rates of divorce and births out of wedlock and the highest proportion of married-couple households. In fact, Japan is the only country studied in which the share of such households has increased since 1960. But even in Japan, family patterns are changing: sharp drops in fertility have led to much smaller families, and the three-generation household, once the mainstay of Japanese family life, is in decline. . . .

Single-parent households as a percent of all households with children under 18, nine countries, latest available year.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review, March 1990. Pp. 41 & 51. Excerpted from an article by Constance Sorrentino.

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY TYPE, NINE COUNTRIES, SELECTED YEARS, 1960-1988

Country and year	Married-couple households[1]			Single-parent households[2]	One-person households	Other households[3]
	Total	With children[2]	Without children[2]			
United States:						
1960	74.3	44.2	30.1	4.4	13.1	8.2
1970	70.5	40.3	30.3	5.0	17.1	7.4
1980	60.8	30.9	29.9	7.5	22.7	9.0
1987	57.6	27.5	30.0	8.1	23.6	10.7
1988	56.9	27.0	29.9	8.0	24.0	11.1
Canada:						
1961	[4]78.0	[4]50.8	[4]26.7	[4]3.8	9.3	[4]8.9
1971	74.0	46.5	27.5	4.5	13.4	8.1
1981	66.8	36.3	30.5	5.3	20.3	7.6
1986	64.5	32.3	32.2	5.6	21.5	8.4
Japan:						
1960	65.3	49.4	15.9	3.1	17.2	14.4
1970	64.3	44.6	19.7	2.3	20.3	13.1
1980	68.4	42.9	25.6	2.2	19.8	9.6
1985	67.4	39.2	28.2	2.5	20.8	9.3
Denmark:[5]						
1976	44.5	23.5	21.0	4.9	(6)	(6)
1983	43.7	22.6	21.1	5.4	(6)	(6)
1988	41.0	19.9	21.1	5.1	(6)	(6)
France:						
1968	70.1	43.6	26.5	4.2	20.3	5.4
1975	68.8	42.1	26.8	4.1	22.1	5.0
1982	67.0	39.7	27.2	4.3	24.6	4.1
1988	63.4	36.2	27.3	5.1	27.1	4.4
Germany:						
1961	66.7	44.3	22.4	10.8	20.6	1.9
1970	64.8	41.7	23.1	6.2	26.5	2.5
1980	60.5	37.0	23.5	6.6	30.2	2.7
1988	54.3	31.4	22.9	6.7	34.9	4.1
Netherlands:						
1961	77.6	55.4	22.3	5.7	11.9	4.8
1971	74.1	51.8	22.3	5.1	17.1	3.7
1981	66.5	43.7	22.9	6.1	21.4	6.0
1985	60.0	38.5	21.5	6.7	27.8	5.5
Sweden:						
1960	66.4	35.7	30.6	3.5	20.2	9.9
1970	64.3	30.2	34.1	3.2	25.3	7.2
1980	57.9	24.8	33.1	3.1	32.8	6.2
1985	54.8	21.7	33.1	3.2	36.1	5.9
United Kingdom:[7]						
1961	73.7	37.8	36.0	2.3	11.9	12.1
1971	69.7	34.4	35.2	2.8	18.1	9.4
1981	64.3	30.5	33.7	4.7	21.8	9.2
1987	64.0	28.0	36.0	4.0	25.0	7.0

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[1] May include unmarried cohabiting couples. Such couples are explicitly included under married couples in Canada (beginning in 1981) and France. For Sweden, beginning in 1980, all cohabitants are included as married couples, and the figures for 1970 have been adjusted by Thora Nilsson (see source note below) to include all cohabitants. The 1960 data have not been adjusted, but the number of unmarried cohabitants was insignificant in 1960, according to Nilsson. For Denmark, from 1983 onward, persons reported separately as living in consensual unions with joint children have been classified here as married couples. There was no separate reporting of such persons in 1976. In other countries, some unmarried cohabitants are included as married couples, while some are classified under "other households," depending on responses to surveys and censuses.

[2] Children are defined as unmarried children living at home according to the following age limits: Under 18 years old in the United States, Canada, Japan, Denmark, and the United Kingdom, except that the United Kingdom includes 16- and 17-year-olds only if they are in full-time education; under 25 years old in France; under 16 years old in Sweden; and children of all ages in Germany and the Netherlands.

[3] Includes both family and nonfamily households not elsewhere classified. These households comprise, for example, siblings residing together, other households composed of relatives, and households made up of roommates. Some unmarried cohabiting couples may also be included in the "other" group. (See footnote 1.)

[4] Estimated by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on ratios of adjusted to unadjusted series in 1971. See source note on Canada.

[5] From family-based statistics. However, one person living alone constitutes a family in Denmark. In this respect, the Danish data are closer to household statistics.

[6] Not available.

[7] Great Britain only (excludes Northern Ireland).

SOURCES: Compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from national population censuses, household surveys, and other sources. For the United States, data are from the March Current Population Survey; for Denmark, data are from the Central Population Register; for Canada, Japan, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom, data are from population censuses, with the following exceptions: French data for 1988 and British data for 1987 are from household surveys; German data for 1970, 1980, and 1988 are from the Microcensus; Dutch data for 1981 and 1985 are from Housing Demand Surveys. Data for Sweden for 1960, 1970, and 1980 are adjusted for historical comparability by Thora Nilsson of Statistics Sweden in the article "Les ménages en Suède, 1960–1980" [Households in Sweden, 1960–1980], *Population*, no. 2, Mar.–Apr. 1985, pp. 223–48. Data for Canada (1971, 1981, and 1986) have been adjusted to U.S. concepts by Statistics Canada.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review, March 1990. P.47.

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MIGRATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

--- Highlights ---

- This report is the result of a joint study of U.S. and Canadian census data by Statistics Canada and the U.S. Bureau of the Census.
- While there are over 100 million crossings of the U.S.-Canadian border each year, less than 25,000 people a year have immigrated between the two nations in the 1980's.
- The current flows between the two countries are far less than the 140,000 a year who migrated between the two countries in the 1910's or the 59,000 a year who migrated between the two countries in the 1960's.
- Major reductions in immigration between the two countries resulted from changes in the U.S. immigration laws in 1965 and in the Canadian immigration laws in 1976.
- While total immigration to the United States from all countries doubled from 1960-64 to 1980-84, migration of Canadians to the United States declined by two-thirds. Thus, while Canadians were almost 12 percent of the total in the earlier period, they represented only 2 percent of total immigrants in the 1980-84 period.
- Between the periods 1970-74 and 1980-84, total immigration to Canada from all countries declined by 28 percent. During the same period, migration of Americans to Canada declined by 65 percent. While Americans made up 13 percent of total immigrants to Canada in 1970-74, they made up only 6.4 percent in 1980-84.
- The peak number (1,310,000) of Canadians in the United States occurred in 1930, while the peak number (374,000) of Americans in Canada was reached around 1921. Current levels are considerably lower: in 1980 there were 843,500 Canadians living in the United States, and 301,500 Americans living in Canada in 1981.
- Almost two-thirds of Canadians living in the United States immigrated before 1960. Over 40 percent of Americans in Canada moved there prior to 1960.
- Over 29 percent of Canadians living in the United States and over 24 percent of Americans in Canada are age 65 and over, the result of much higher immigration flows earlier this century.
- Most Canadians who came to the United States before 1960 live in the northern tier of States while those who came after 1960 are more likely to live further south.
- Americans who came to Canada after 1960 are more likely to live in Ontario and British Columbia than those who came before 1960.
- Migrants between the two countries had higher incomes and higher educational levels than the native populations of either country.
- Close to 50 percent of Americans in Canada and 45 percent of Canadians in the United States are in highly skilled occupations.
- Both migrant groups are heavily concentrated in tertiary industries. This sector accounts for 74 percent * of the Americans employed in Canada and 70 percent of the Canadians employed in the United States. ❖

Migration Between Canada and the United States, by Country of Last Previous Residence: 1910 to 1988

Period	Canada to United States	United States to Canada
Total	3,062,970	1,601,665
1910 to 1919	708,715	694,059
1920 to 1929	949,286	238,632
1930 to 1939	162,703	96,311
1940 to 1949	160,911	70,164
1950 to 1959	353,169	97,687
1960 to 1969	433,128	153,609
1970 to 1979	179,585	193,111
1980 to 1988	E148,035	72,586

E Estimated figures for 1980 to 1983 (see note in appendix table A-5), actual figures for 1984 to 1988.

Source: Appendix tables A-3 and A-5.

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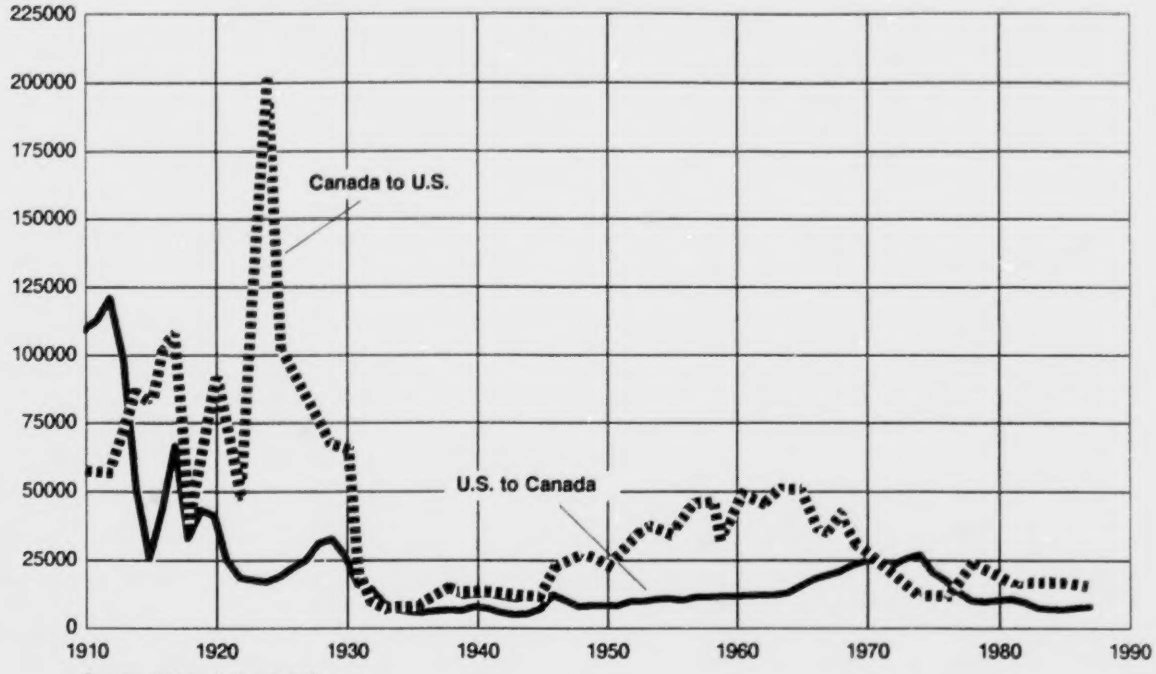
* Primary industries include agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and mining.
Secondary industries include construction and all manufacturing.
Tertiary industries include all other industries.

continued →

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 161, Migration Between the United States And Canada, (In Canada: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 91-528E) Pp. 1 and 7.

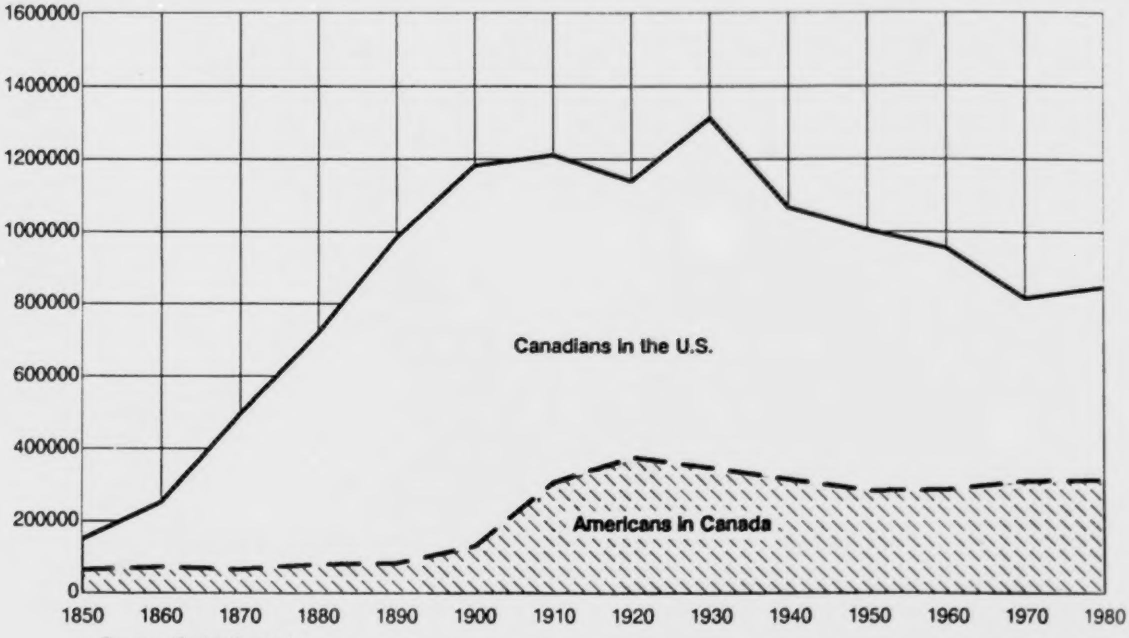
THE U.S. AND CANADA continued

1. Immigration Between Canada And The United States: 1910-1988



Source: Tables A-3 and A-5.

2. Number of Canadians In The United States And Americans In Canada: 1850/51-1980/81.



Source: Tables 3 and 4.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 161, Migration Between the United States And Canada, (In Canada: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 91-528E) Pp. 8 and 13.

IN 1989, THE U.S. BOUGHT MORE MERCHANDISE THAN IT SOLD

$472.9 billion Imports Less $364.4 billion Exports = $108.5 billion Deficit

Canada Remains Largest U.S. Trading Partner

Top 25 U.S. Markets

U.S. Domestic and Foreign Merchandise Exports, 1989 (f.a.s. Value)

		$billions
	Total Exports	**364.4**
1.	Canada	78.6
2.	Japan	44.6
3.	Mexico	25.0
4.	United Kingdom	20.9
5.	West Germany	16.9
6.	South Korea	13.5
7.	France	11.6
8.	Netherlands	11.4
9.	Taiwan	11.3
10.	Belgium-Luxembourg	8.7
11.	Australia	8.3
12.	Singapore	7.4
13.	Italy	7.2
14.	Hong Kong	6.3
15.	China	5.8
16.	Switzerland	4.9
17.	Brazil	4.8
18.	Spain	4.8
19.	USSR	4.3
20.	Saudi Arabia	3.6
21.	Sweden	3.1
22.	Venezuela	3.0
23.	Malaysia	2.9
24.	Israel	2.8
25.	Egypt	2.6

Leading U.S. Suppliers

U.S. General Merchandise Imports, 1989 (Customs value)

		$ billions
	Total Imports	**472.9**
1.	Japan	93.6
2.	Canada	88.2
3.	Mexico	27.2
4.	West Germany	24.8
5.	Taiwan	24.3
6.	South Korea	19.7
7.	United Kingdom	18.2
8.	France	13.0
9.	China	12.0
10.	Italy	11.9
11.	Hong Kong	9.7
12.	Singapore	9.0
13.	Brazil	8.4
14.	Saudi Arabia	7.2
15.	Venezuela	6.8
16.	Nigeria	5.2
17.	Sweden	4.9
18.	Netherlands	4.8
19.	Malaysia	4.7
20.	Switzerland	4.7
21.	Belgium-Luxembourg	4.6
22.	Thailand	4.4
23.	Australia	3.9
24.	Indonesia	3.5
25.	Spain	3.3

U.S. Trade Balances, 1989

Listing of U.S. Merchandise Trade Balances
General Imports, Customs Value; Domestic and Foreign Exports, f.a.s. Value

U.S. Surplus Positions

		$ billions
1.	Netherlands	+6.6
2.	Australia	+4.4
3.	Belgium-Luxembourg	+4.1
4.	USSR	+3.6
5.	United Kingdom	+2.6
6.	Egypt	+2.4
7.	Spain	+1.5
8.	Ireland	+0.9
9.	United Arab Emirates	+0.7
10.	Turkey	+0.6
11.	Pakistan	+0.6
12.	Jamaica	+0.5
13.	Panama	+0.5
14.	Bahrain	+0.4
15.	Jordan	+0.4
16.	Bermuda	+0.3
17.	Bahamas	+0.3
18.	Morocco	+0.3
19.	El Salvador	+0.3
20.	French Guiana	+0.3
21.	Greece	+0.2
22.	Switzerland	+0.2
23.	Leeward & Windward Is.	+0.2
24.	Netherlands Antilles	+0.2
25.	Cayman Islands	+0.2

U.S. Deficit Positions

		$ billions
	Total	**−108.6**
1.	Japan	−49.0
2.	Taiwan	−13.0
3.	Canada	−9.6
4.	West Germany	−8.0
5.	South Korea	−6.3
6.	China	−6.2
7.	Nigeria	−4.7
8.	Italy	−4.7
9.	Venezuela	−3.8
10.	Saudi Arabia	−3.6
11.	Brazil	−3.6
12.	Hong Kong	−3.4
13.	Indonesia	−2.3
14.	Mexico	−2.2
15.	Thailand	−2.1
16.	Malaysia	−1.9
17.	Angola	−1.8
18.	Sweden	−1.8
19.	Singapore	−1.6
20.	France	−1.4
21.	Iraq	−1.2
22.	Algeria	−1.1
23.	Norway	−1.0
24.	Philippines	−0.9
25.	India	−0.9

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, April 23, 1990. P.5.

U.S. TRADE FACTS

The United States is the world's largest economy, the largest market, the leading importer, and the leading exporter. In 1989, merchandise exports contributed 36 percent of real U.S. GNP growth.

Merchandise Exports

- U.S. two-way trade totaled $837 billion in 1989, with exports of $364 billion and imports of $473 billion.
- The 1989 U.S. trade deficit shrank to $109 billion, 28 percent below the 1987 deficit peak.
- U.S. merchandise exports rose to 7.0 percent of the nation's GNP in 1989—from a low of 5.3 percent in 1986. That compares with estimated 1989 shares for West Germany of 28.4 percent; Canada 22.6 percent; the United Kingdom 18.0 percent; and Japan 9.8 percent.
- In 1989, the United States accounted for 13.2 percent of the world's merchandise exports and an estimated 16.5 percent of the world's merchandise imports.
- In 1989, total U.S. merchandise exports were comprised of 80 percent manufactured goods; 11 percent agricultural goods; and 9 percent primarily mineral fuels and crude materials.
- Total U.S. merchandise imports in 1989 were comprised of 80 percent manufactured goods; 11 percent mineral fuels; and 9 percent agricultural and other goods.
- On average, more than 22,000 (revised) U.S. jobs resulted per $1 billion of U.S. merchandise exports in 1989.
- Merchandise exports accounted for nearly seven million jobs in the United States in 1989.
- About one in six U.S. jobs in manufacturing was probably due directly or indirectly to exports in 1989.
- From 1891 through 1970, the United States had an unbroken string of trade surpluses. After 1970, it had deficits in every year except 1973 and 1975.
- Canada was by far the United States' leading foreign market for exports in 1989, followed by Japan, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and West Germany. Japan was the United States' leading import supplier, followed closely by Canada, and then by Mexico, West Germany, Taiwan, South Korea, and the United Kingdom.
- Capital goods, including aircraft, lead U.S. exports, followed by industrial supplies and materials, then foods, feeds, and beverages, automotive products, and other consumer products.
- The Commerce Department estimates that roughly one-third of U.S. manufacturing companies—slightly more than 100,000 such companies—export manufactured goods.

Business Services Exports

- Exports of U.S. business services are over one-fourth as large as U.S. exports of merchandise.
- Exports and imports of business services totaled $104.6 billion and $76.9 billion, respectively, in 1989.
- In 1989, U.S. exports of business services accounted for about 2.0 percent of the nation's GNP. Travel service receipts and passenger fares accounted for one-third of that total.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, May 7, 1990. P.5.

21

OPINION

A Minister Asks: "SHOULD I SEND THE CHECK?"

The following was authored by W. Evan Golder, editor of the United Church of Christ's (UCC) United Church News, May 1990 and is reprinted here with permission. (United Church News, 700 Prospect Ave., Cleveland OH 44115) In choosing to reprint this comment, World Eagle is not necessarily taking a pro or con position on either capital punishment or Andrew Young. It is simply pointing to what it believes is an interesting dilemma, insightfully worded.

What do you do when an organization or person you support does something you disagree with?

The question arises because of Andrew Young, whom I have admired for more than 20 years, ever since his work with Martin Luther King, Jr.

A fellow UCC minister, he has exerted strong moral and political leadership for civil rights at home and human rights abroad. As a member of Congress and as U.N. ambassador, he was a visible force for justice in South Africa and peace in the Middle East. Andy Young always seemed to take the high road, even losing his U.N. position for talking with both Israelis and Palestinians.

Then, too, ever since high school in the '50s, I have opposed the death penalty. And as mayor of Atlanta, Young supported Death Penalty Awareness Day with a proclamation.

So when I heard that he was no longer mayor and was running for governor of Georgia, I wrote a check to support his candidacy. Not knowing where to mail it, I stuck the check in my wallet.

Imagine my shock then, when the Sunday paper carried the news that, before announcing his gubernatorial candidacy, Andy Young has publicly come out for capital punishment.

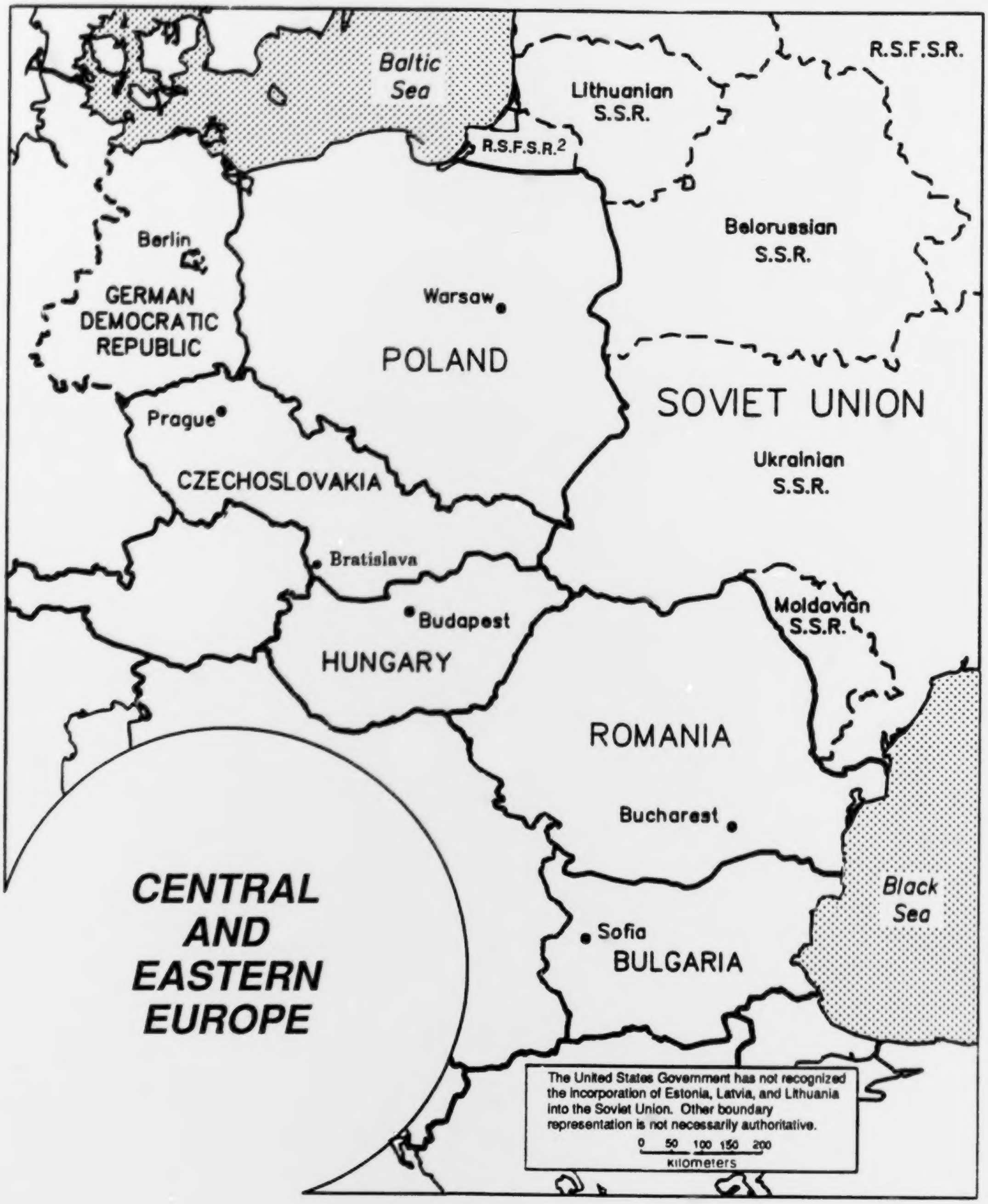
Now the question comes: should I send the check?

In its use of capital punishment, the U.S. ranks with Iran, the Soviet Union and South Africa. Despite decades of work against the death penalty, the church has failed to exert much moral leadership. So many people support the death penalty (80 percent) that a leading Christian minister/politician could publicly change his mind with no apparent loss of integrity.

About 2,250 people live on Death Row in the U.S., 110 of them in Georgia. But the governor there has no clemency powers; this privilege belongs to a state board. So why raise the issue? Press reports say Andy Young changed his mind because, as mayor, he attended too many funerals for slain police officers. Does this make him more credible, looking less like trading lives for votes?

On the other hand, does a single issue disqualify a person of high quality, achievement and promise? How many times have I tried to explain to church members why they should not withhold mission dollars because they disagree with some particular General Synod vote or UCC agency action.

Andy Young has always been a successful negotiator, committed yet able to compromise. Did he compromise too much this time? I hope not. Aware that no one of us is ever all we would like to be, I've decided to send the check - but to let him know how disappointed I am.


Baltic Sea
R.S.F.S.R.
Lithuanian S.S.R.
R.S.F.S.R.2
Belorussian S.S.R.
Berlin
GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
Warsaw
POLAND
SOVIET UNION
Prague
Ukrainian S.S.R.
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Bratislava
Moldavian S.S.R.
Budapest
HUNGARY
ROMANIA
Bucharest
Black Sea
Sofia
BULGARIA
0 50 100 150 200
Kilometers

CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Other boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

R.S.F.S.R.[2] The Kaliningrad Oblast of the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic

Source: U.S. Department of State, Regional Brief. Eastern Europe. Revised December 4, 1989. Reprinted here from World Eagle's EUROPE TODAY 1990 Revised Edition. P.50.

WHERE THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT SPENDS ITS MONEY

The federal government paid out $932 billion for grants, individual benefits, salaries, and other expenses to state and local areas in fiscal 1989, the Commerce Department reported recently.

The agency released three reports which detail federal government expenditures in states, counties, subcounty areas, and territories during the fiscal year which ended on Sept. 30, 1989. They include literally all federal expenditures except interest on the federal debt.

The state report shows the federal government spent:

- $453 billion in 1989 payments for individual benefits, such as Social Security, Medicare, and Food Stamps.
- $178 billion in procurement contracts from the Defense Department and other agencies.
- $143 billion for federal employee salaries and wages.
- $121 billion in grants to state and local governments.
- $37 billion for research grants, agricultural subsidies, and other purposes.

The federal government's per capita expenditures nationwide in fiscal year 1989 totaled $3,701, a 3.3 percent increase from the previous year, the Census Bureau reported.

In states, the federal government spent between $2,801 and $5,680 per person with per capita expenditures exceeding $4,500 in each of nine states during the 1989 fiscal year, the Census Bureau said.

Per capita Federal Spending in Nine States Exceeding $4,500 Each

	1989 Ranking	1989 Per Capita	1988 Ranking	1988 Per Capita
AK	1	$5,680	3	$5,193
NM	2	5,298	2	5,752
VA	3	5,257	1	5,954
MD	4	5,194	4	5,113
CT	5	4,875	8	4,249
HI	6	4,866	5	4,535
MA	7	4,830	7	4,272
ND	8	4,595	6	4,345
MO	9	4,523	9	4,195

The county report shows that 24 counties or equivalent areas had federal spending exceeding $5 billion. Five had federal spending in excess of $10 billion. These were:

County	Payroll
Los Angeles County CA	$30.2 billion
New York City NY	$26.4 billion
Washington DC	$15.5 billion
Cook County IL (including Chicago)	$14.8 billion
San Diego County CA	$11.5 billion

Defense Department spending exceeded $2 billion in 23 county or county equivalent areas. Defense spending includes payroll for military and civilian employees, defense contracts, and military pensions. The six largest county or equivalent areas, with defense spending of $4 billion or more, were:

County	Contract Value
Los Angeles County CA	$10.1 billion
San Diego County CA	6.6 billion
St. Louis City MO	6.0 billion
Santa Clara County CA	4.1 billion
Tarrant County TX	4.1 billion
Middlesex County MA	4.0 billion

The reports also provide a geographic breakdown for 1989 of $276 billion in direct loans, guaranteed loans, and insurance.

Copies of the three reports, Federal Expenditures by State for Fiscal Year 1989; Consolidated Federal Funds Report, Fiscal Year 1989, Volume 1: County Areas: and Consolidated Federal Funds Report, Fiscal Year 1989, Volume 11: Subcounty Areas, may be purchased prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-59, March 30, 1990. Pp.1-3.

continued ——

WHERE THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT SPENDS ITS MONEY continued

Summary Distribution of Federal Funds by State and Territory, Fiscal Year, 1989

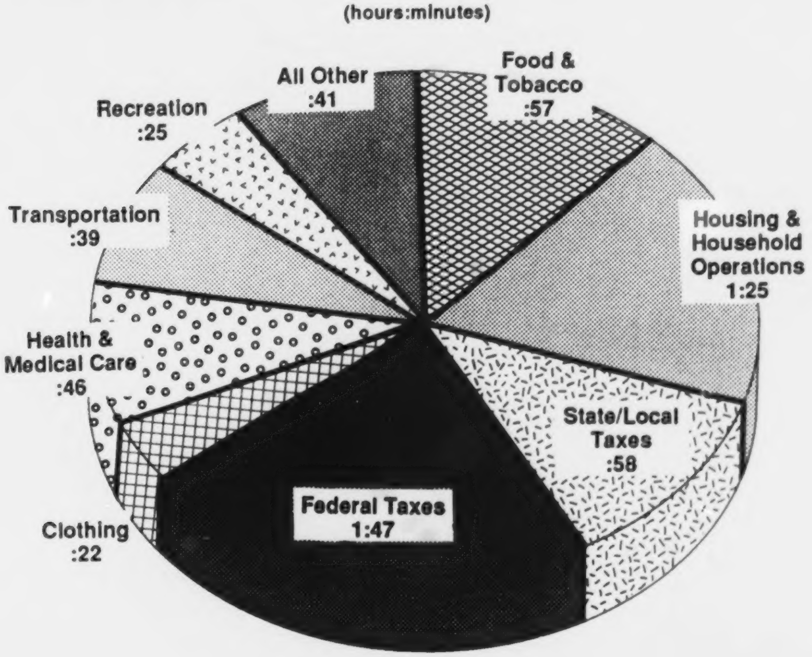
State and territory	Ranking (per capita)	Per capita (dollars)	Expenditure category (millions of dollars)					
			Total	Grants to State and local governments	Salaries and wages	Direct payments for individuals	Procurement	Other programs
United States, Total	(X)	3,700.59	931,900	121,079	142,916	453,072	177,687	37,148
Alabama	20	3,656.05	15,056	1,802	2,750	7,895	2,230	379
Alaska	1	5,680.26	2,993	663	1,137	553	619	22
Arizona	16	3,762.89	13,381	1,305	1,920	6,694	3,187	275
Arkansas	39	3,253.29	7,827	1,106	872	4,860	463	526
California	18	3,737.10	108,611	11,936	17,604	46,729	29,427	2,916
Colorado	10	4,215.61	13,983	1,359	2,837	5,259	3,945	584
Connecticut	5	4,875.01	15,790	1,771	1,205	5,792	6,443	579
Delaware	42	3,128.25	2,105	313	362	1,182	207	42
District of Columbia	(X)	25,189.53	15,214	1,525	8.531	1,853	2,262	1,045
Florida	19	3,684.03	46,680	4,095	6,089	29,710	6,201	585
Georgia	41	3,161.45	20,347	3,089	4,846	9,862	2,044	506
Hawaii	6	4,865.53	5,410	528	2,285	1,884	613	100
Idaho	21	3,637.40	3,688	501	480	1,664	890	153
Illinois	46	2,977.55	34,712	4,989	4,493	20,710	2,445	2,076
Indiana	49	2,844.68	15,910	2,115	1,711	9,272	1,911	901
Iowa	29	3,453.83	9,809	1,183	692	5,240	608	2,086
Kansas	23	3,611.80	9,076	912	1,598	4,727	1,056	784
Kentucky	34	3,316.17	12.359	1,853	2,333	6,667	1,185	321
Louisiana	37	3,291.34	14,423	2,304	1,894	7,137	2,541	547
Maine	14	3,895.53	4.760	688	537	2,324	1,150	62
Maryland	4	5,193.82	24,380	2,156	5,753	9,011	5,575	1,885
Massachusetts	7	4,829.66	28,558	3,688	2,547	11,797	9,436	1,089
Michigan	50	2,800.92	25,973	4,553	2,304	16,829	1,521	766
Minnesota	35	3,315.74	14,433	2,269	1,230	6,870	1,872	2,193
Mississippi	17	3,740.00	9,803	1,366	1,240	4,931	1,865	401
Missouri	9	4,523.15	23,335	2,031	2,800	9,847	7,151	1,506
Montana	11	4,047.16	3,262	559	486	1,505	149	564
Nebraska	25	3,581.54	5,770	709	900	2,908	334	919
Nevada	28	3,505.14	3,894	389	596	1,930	938	40
New Hampshire	43	3,083.72	3,414	411	668	1,745	517	73
New Jersey	33	3,346.91	25,892	3,570	3,323	14,703	3,950	345
New Mexico	2	5,298.41	8,096	907	1,282	2,663	3,084	161
New York	24	3,593.07	64,496	13,700	6,295	34,112	8,522	1,867
North Carolina	48	2,869.46	18,855	2,498	3,917	10,473	1,443	524
North Dakota	8	4,595.27	3,033	431	506	1,165	166	764
Ohio	36	3,308.99	36,091	4,965	3,682	19,928	6,675	842
Oklahoma	30	3,449.21	11,120	1,508	2,302	6,027	800	483
Oregon	45	3,036.40	8,563	1,426	1,050	5,440	334	312
Pennsylvania	26	3,521.34	42,397	6,390	4,831	26,291	3,822	1,062
Rhode Island	15	3,818.16	3,811	684	529	2,073	441	84
South Carolina	31	3,411.83	11,982	1,455	2,532	5,633	2,151	213
South Dakota	12	4,041.87	2,890	464	466	1,287	134	539
Tennessee	32	3,372.54	16,660	2,353	2,248	8,679	3,023	358
Texas	40	3,222.23	54,749	5,974	9,197	26,243	10,974	2,360
Utah	22	3,626.68	6,191	822	1,343	2,295	1,512	218
Vermont	44	3,047.71	1,728	356	195	937	189	50
Virginia	3	5,257.90	32,063	2,119	9,975	11,516	7,384	1,068
Washington	13	4,037.97	19,225	2,294	3,565	8,620	4,114	632
West Virginia	38	3,290.71	6,111	952	558	4,158	339	104
Wisconsin	47	2,974.29	14,476	2,312	1,122	8,599	1,385	1,058
Wyoming	27	3,507.67	1,666	484	300	707	114	61
American Samoa	(X)	3,475.61	132	75	2	13	42	-
Guam	(X)	4,943.41	643	116	357	80	86	3
Northern Marianas	(X)	3,322.90	66	60	-	4	2	-
Puerto Rico	(X)	2,022.68	6,659	2,515	481	3,196	378	89
Virgin Islands	(X)	2,273.74	241	116	29	85	7	3
Undistributed	(X)	(X)	19,107	366	128	758	17,834	23

Note: Because of rounding, detail may not add to totals.
- Represents zero or rounds to zero.
X Not applicable.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-59, March 30, 1990. P.4.

IN 1990, TAX FREEDOM DAY WAS MAY 5 -- LATEST DATE EVER

In the U.S. this year, the average wage-earner worked from January 1 to May 5 to satisfy all federal, state, and local tax obligations, with every cent earned from the beginning of the year going to the tax collectors.



The 1990 "Tax Bite In An Eight-Hour Day"
Federal Taxes 1 hour:47 minutes plus State and Local Taxes :58 = 2 hours:45 minutes

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"Tax Bite In the Eight-Hour Day" 1989-1990

(hours:minutes)

	1989	1990
Total Taxes	2:42	2:45
Federal	1:46	1:47
State and Local	:56	:58
Total Personal Consumption Expenditures	5:18	5:15
Housing and Household Operations	1:26	1:25
Food and Tobacco	:58	:57
Health and Medical Care	:46	:46
Transportation	:39	:39
Recreation	:25	:25
Clothing	:23	:22
All Other	:41	:41
8-Hour Day	8:00	8:00

Source: Tax Foundation, Washington D.C.
Telephone (202) 863-5454.

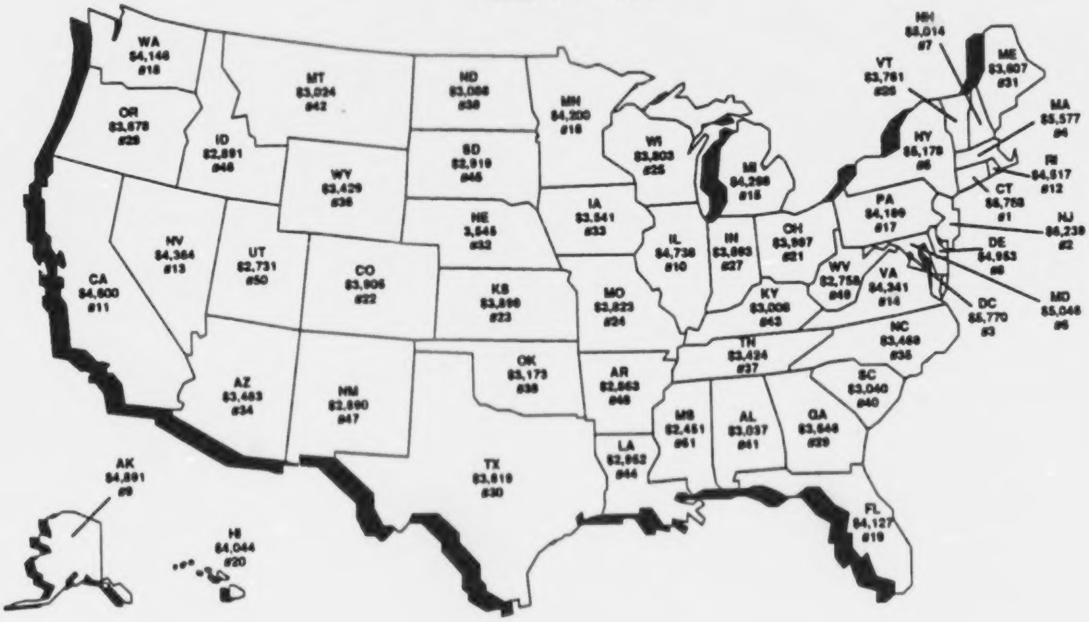
THE NATIONAL PER CAPITA TAX BURDEN WILL RISE $286 to $4,170 IN FY 1990.

-- Calculations Do Not Count The Federal Budget Deficit --

The 5 states with the highest per capita burden: CT, NJ, DC, MA, NY,
The 5 states with the lowest per capita burden: MS, UT, WV, AR, NM

Per Capita Total Federal Tax Burden by State

Fiscal Year 1990


WA $4,146 #18
OR $3,678 #28
ID $2,891 #46
MT $3,024 #42
ND $3,086 #39
SD $2,919 #45
WY $3,429 #36
NE 3,545 #32
MN $4,200 #16
WI $3,803 #25
MI $4,296 #15
IA $3,541 #33
IL $4,738 #10
IN $3,893 #27
OH $3,967 #21
PA $4,169 #17
NY $5,178 #5
VT $3,761 #26
NH $5,014 #7
ME $3,607 #31
MA $5,577 #4
RI $4,517 #12
CT $6,768 #1
NJ $6,239 #2
DE $4,953 #8
MD $5,046 #6
DC $5,770 #3
VA $4,341 #14
WV $2,758 #49
KY $3,006 #43
NC $3,489 #35
TN $3,424 #37
SC $3,040 #40
GA $3,646 #29
AL $3,037 #41
MS $2,451 #51
FL $4,127 #19
LA $2,952 #44
AR $2,863 #48
MO $3,823 #24
KS $3,898 #23
OK $3,173 #38
TX $3,619 #30
NM $2,890 #47
CO $3,905 #22
UT $2,731 #50
AZ $3,483 #34
NV $4,384 #13
CA $4,600 #11
AK $4,891 #9
HI $4,044 #20

Per Capita Tax Burden by State

Fiscal Years 1989-1991

	Per Capita Burden			State Rank '90	
State	1989	1990	1991	Total Taxes	Per Capita
U.S. Total	$ 3,884	$ 4,170	$ 4,511	—	—
Alabama	2,821	3,037	3,298	25	41
Alaska	4,667	4,891	5,164	46	9
Arizona	3,309	3,483	3,697	24	34
Arkansas	2,655	2,863	3,122	32	48
California	4,331	4,600	4,921	1	11
Colorado	3,660	3,905	4,202	22	22
Connecticut	6,252	6,768	7,358	15	1
Delaware	4,629	4,953	5,344	44	8
Florida	3,906	4,127	4,391	5	19
Georgia	3,424	3,646	3,912	12	29
Hawaii	3,781	4,044	4,354	39	20
Idaho	2,696	2,891	3,137	45	46
Illinois	4,375	4,738	5,169	4	10
Indiana	3,409	3,893	4,032	10	27
Iowa	3,261	3,541	3,886	30	33
Kansas	3,623	3,898	4,236	31	23
Kentucky	2,783	3,006	3,280	26	43
Louisiana	2,725	2,952	3,230	23	44
Maine	3,358	3,607	3,909	42	31
Maryland	4,694	5,046	5,496	13	6
Massachusetts	5,149	5,577	6,075	10	4
Michigan	3,966	4,296	4,696	9	15
Minnesota	3,902	4,200	4,561	20	16
Mississippi	2,279	2,451	2,668	33	51
Missouri	3,544	3,823	4,159	17	24
Montana	2,807	3,024	3,300	47	42
Nebraska	3,277	3,545	3,871	34	32
Nevada	4,169	4,384	4,806	37	13
New Hampshire	4,703	5,014	5,374	35	7
New Jersey	5,780	6,239	6,776	7	2
New Mexico	2,719	2,890	3,105	41	47
New York	4,779	5,178	5,647	2	5
North Carolina	3,237	3,489	3,747	14	35
North Dakota	2,862	3,086	3,366	50	39
Ohio	3,689	3,967	4,308	8	21
Oklahoma	2,956	3,173	3,438	28	38
Oregon	3,423	3,678	3,996	29	28
Pennsylvania	3,873	4,169	4,500	6	17
Rhode Island	4,193	4,517	4,908	40	12
South Carolina	2,843	3,040	3,290	27	40
South Dakota	2,709	2,919	3,179	49	45
Tennessee	3,183	3,424	3,711	21	37
Texas	3,410	3,619	3,870	3	30
Utah	2,568	2,731	2,934	36	50
Vermont	3,511	3,761	4,068	48	26
Virginia	4,052	4,341	4,661	11	14
Washington	3,806	4,146	4,462	18	18
West Virginia	2,541	2,758	3,036	38	49
Wisconsin	3,529	3,803	4,139	19	25
Wyoming	3,169	3,429	3,730	51	36
Dist. of Columbia	5,292	5,770	6,326	43	3

Source: Computations of total and per capita tax burden by state made by Tax Foundation, based on Fiscal Year 1991 Budget of the U.S.

Source: Tax Foundation, Washington D.C.
News Release dated May 18, 1990.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

U.S. VOTING AGE POPULATION PROJECTED TO BE 186 MILLION IN NOVEMBER 1990. 44% WILL BE 25-44 YEARS. CHALLENGE IS TO MARKEDLY IMPROVE ON RECENT VOTER REGISTRATION AND PARTICIPATION.

The nation's voting age population is expected to total 186 million by Nov. 1, an increase of nearly 8 million from November 1986, according to projections from the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

The projection is 3.6 million higher than the total at the time of the November 1988 presidential election.

Voting age population growth continues to be concentrated among persons aged 25 to 44. These were born at the height of the baby boom. This age group will have increased by 19 million since 1980 and should total nearly 82 million by November of this year. Their share of the voting age population will have grown to 44 percent, up from 39 percent in 1980.

The voting age population aged 65 and over will have grown by 6.2 million since 1980, increasing their numbers to 31.7 million and their share from 16 percent to 17 percent of the total. Those aged 45 to 64 will have grown by 2.5 million, their share dropping from 27 percent to 25 percent since 1980.

According to the report, the number of persons aged 18 to 24 will have declined by 4.3 million since 1980. These will comprise only 14 percent of the voting age population this November, down from 18 percent.

Over one-third of the voting age population is expected to be living in the South, an increase of 3.3 million or 5.4 percent since the 1986 election. The West's voting age population will have grown by 7.5 percent since 1986, and will have virtually the same size voting age population as the Northeast--just over 38 million.

Nearly one-fourth of Florida's voting age population will be over age 65, with a median age over 45. Alaska will have the youngest voting age population.

Voting age women will outnumber men by nearly 8 million, comprising 52 percent of that population. Their highest proportion will be in the Northeast, and they will outnumber men in all age groups except those 18 to 24, where the numbers will be about equal. They will comprise nearly 60 percent of the voting age population age 65 and over.

Blacks will represent 11 percent of the voting age population. More that half of the 21.1 million Blacks of voting age will live in the South.

The report also traces voter participation in selected presidential and congressional elections for the nation, regions, and states.

The projections are based on the resident population, including armed forces stationed in the states. They exclude persons living overseas. The report includes four alternative series of projections, differing according to the assumptions about internal migration.

The table on the next page shows the Series A projected Nov.1, 1990 voting age population by age group for each state.

Copies of Projections of the Population of Voting for States, November 1990, Series P-25, No. 1059, are available prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Release CB-90-93, May 10, 1990.

PROJECTIONS OF THE POPULATION OF VOTING AGE, FOR STATES, BY SELECTED AGES: NOVEMBER 1990 SERIES A

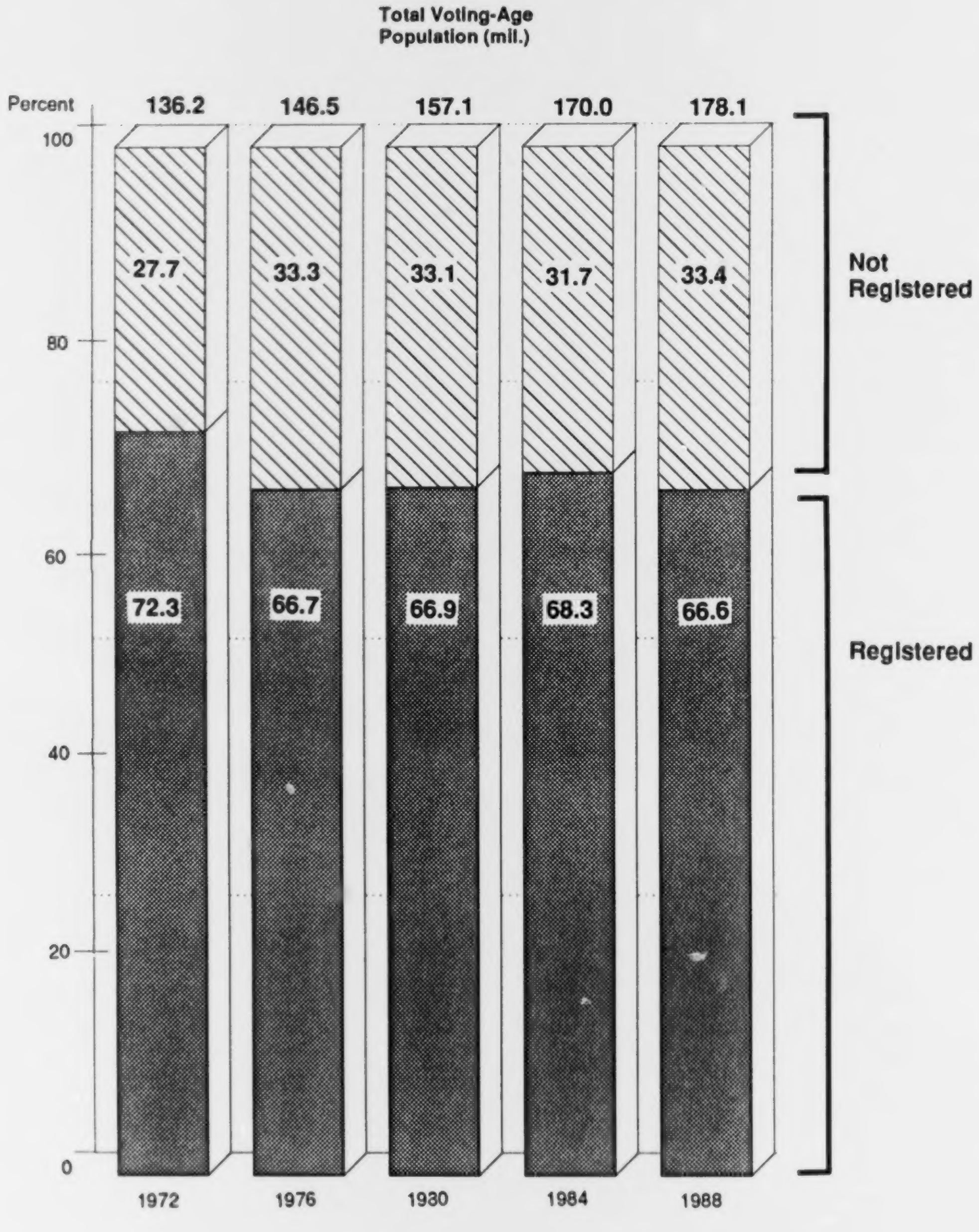
(Numbers in thousands. Population 18 years old and over. Includes Armed Forces in each State. Series A, B, C, and D reflect different interstate migration assumptions. See text for explanations)

Region, division, and State	Total, 18 and over	18-24 years	25-44 years	45-64 years	65 and over	Percent of voting-age population aged—				Median age, 18 and over
						18-24 years	25-44 years	45-64 years	65 and over	
United States	186,382	25,771	81,898	46,992	31,721	13.8	43.9	25.2	17.0	41.0
Northeast	38,893	5,127	16,406	10,264	7,096	13.2	42.2	26.4	18.2	42.2
New England	10,104	1,368	4,392	2,545	1,799	13.5	43.5	25.2	17.8	41.4
Middle Atlantic	28,789	3,759	12,013	7,719	5,297	13.1	41.7	26.8	18.4	42.5
Midwest	44,736	6,172	19,488	11,251	7,825	13.8	43.6	25.2	17.5	41.1
East North Central	31,453	4,397	13,741	7,964	5,350	14.0	43.7	25.3	17.0	41.0
West North Central	13,283	1,775	5,747	3,287	2,474	13.4	43.3	24.7	18.6	41.4
South	64,272	9,114	27,976	16,215	10,967	14.2	43.5	25.2	17.1	41.0
South Atlantic	33,417	4,606	14,224	8,613	5,974	13.8	42.6	25.8	17.9	41.7
East South Central	11,488	1,664	4,950	2,902	1,972	14.5	43.1	25.3	17.2	41.0
West South Central	19,366	2,843	8,802	4,700	3,020	14.7	45.5	24.3	15.6	39.8
West	38,482	5,358	18,028	9,261	5,834	13.9	46.8	24.1	15.2	39.8
Mountain	9,829	1,407	4,582	2,323	1,517	14.3	46.6	23.6	15.4	39.6
Pacific	28,652	3,951	13,446	6,938	4,317	13.8	46.9	24.2	15.1	39.8
New England:										
Maine	931	129	404	231	167	13.8	43.4	24.9	17.9	41.3
New Hampshire	861	122	398	210	130	14.2	46.3	24.4	15.1	40.0
Vermont	428	63	197	101	68	14.6	46.0	23.5	15.8	39.8
Massachusetts	4,598	627	2,003	1,137	831	13.6	43.6	24.7	18.1	41.2
Rhode Island	771	105	324	191	151	13.6	42.1	24.7	19.6	41.9
Connecticut	2,516	322	1,065	675	453	12.8	42.4	26.8	18.0	42.1
Middle Atlantic:										
New York	13,582	1,810	5,715	3,667	2,389	13.3	42.1	27.0	17.6	42.2
New Jersey	5,986	761	2,517	1,649	1,058	12.7	42.1	27.6	17.7	42.6
Pennsylvania	9,221	1,188	3,781	2,403	1,850	12.9	41.0	26.1	20.1	42.9
East North Central:										
Ohio	8,119	1,120	3,482	2,096	1,422	13.8	42.9	25.8	17.5	41.5
Indiana	4,164	596	1,816	1,050	703	14.3	43.6	25.2	16.9	40.8
Illinois	8,682	1,193	3,820	2,211	1,458	13.7	44.0	25.5	16.8	40.9
Michigan	6,870	995	3,044	1,719	1,112	14.5	44.3	25.0	16.2	40.4
Wisconsin	3,617	494	1,580	889	655	13.6	43.7	24.6	18.1	41.1
West North Central:										
Minnesota	3,249	437	1,469	788	555	13.4	45.2	24.2	17.1	40.5
Iowa	2,100	273	888	514	425	13.0	42.3	24.5	20.2	42.1
Missouri	3,893	514	1,645	1,003	731	13.2	42.2	25.8	18.8	42.0
North Dakota	478	67	212	109	90	14.0	44.3	22.9	18.8	40.4
South Dakota	518	70	219	126	102	13.5	42.4	24.4	19.7	41.7
Nebraska	1,181	160	508	289	225	13.6	43.0	24.4	19.0	41.4
Kansas	1,864	253	806	457	347	13.6	43.2	24.5	18.6	41.3
South Atlantic:										
Delaware	514	73	226	133	83	14.1	43.9	25.8	16.2	40.5
Maryland	3,622	503	1,648	941	531	13.9	45.5	26.0	14.7	40.4
District of Columbia	477	64	217	117	79	13.4	45.6	24.5	16.5	40.2
Virginia	4,755	700	2,172	1,202	682	14.7	45.7	25.3	14.3	39.9
West Virginia	1,380	186	578	347	269	13.5	41.9	25.1	19.5	42.2
North Carolina	5,071	752	2,195	1,298	828	14.8	43.3	25.6	16.3	40.8
South Carolina	2,621	402	1,172	645	402	15.3	44.7	24.6	15.3	39.8
Georgia	4,827	741	2,204	1,206	677	15.3	45.7	25.0	14.0	39.6
Florida	10,150	1,188	3,813	2,726	2,424	11.7	37.6	26.9	23.9	45.5
East South Central:										
Kentucky	2,778	403	1,206	695	474	14.5	43.4	25.0	17.1	40.9
Tennessee	3,773	530	1,634	970	639	14.0	43.3	25.7	16.9	41.2
Alabama	3,060	441	1,315	774	530	14.4	43.0	25.3	17.3	41.0
Mississippi	1,877	290	794	464	329	15.5	42.3	24.7	17.5	40.7
West South Central:										
Arkansas	1,780	242	719	459	360	13.6	40.4	25.8	20.2	42.8
Louisiana	3,093	460	1,407	739	487	14.9	45.5	23.9	15.8	39.6
Oklahoma	2,337	319	1,010	582	425	13.7	43.2	24.9	18.2	41.4
Texas	12,156	1,821	5,666	2,920	1,748	15.0	46.6	24.0	14.4	39.3
Mountain:										
Montana	581	75	261	143	103	12.8	44.9	24.5	17.7	41.2
Idaho	710	101	324	166	119	14.2	45.7	23.3	16.8	40.3
Wyoming	329	46	174	66	43	14.0	52.9	20.0	13.1	37.9
Colorado	2,475	344	1,227	576	328	13.9	49.6	23.3	13.2	39.1
New Mexico	1,091	159	499	269	164	14.6	45.7	24.7	15.0	39.9
Arizona	2,702	377	1,171	661	493	14.0	43.3	24.5	18.3	41.1
Utah	1,084	194	517	227	146	17.9	47.7	20.9	13.5	37.3
Nevada	858	112	409	216	121	13.0	47.7	25.2	14.1	39.6
Pacific:										
Washington	3,597	485	1,709	836	567	13.5	47.5	23.2	15.8	39.9
Oregon	2,128	268	988	486	385	12.6	46.5	22.8	18.1	40.8
California	21,709	3,004	10,166	5,322	3,218	13.8	46.8	24.5	14.8	39.8
Alaska	365	62	199	83	21	16.9	54.5	22.7	5.9	36.9
Hawaii	854	133	385	210	125	15.5	45.1	24.6	14.7	39.7

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB-90-93, May 10, 1990.

IN THE LAST FOUR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS APPROXIMATELY ONE-THIRD OF AMERICA'S ELIGIBLE VOTERS DIDN'T EVEN REGISTER TO VOTE

Percent of civilian noninstitutional population 18 years old and older who reported they registered.



World Eagle graph. Data for years 1972-1984 from 1986 Statistical Abstract of the United States, Table 434. For year 1988, from Bureau of the Census.

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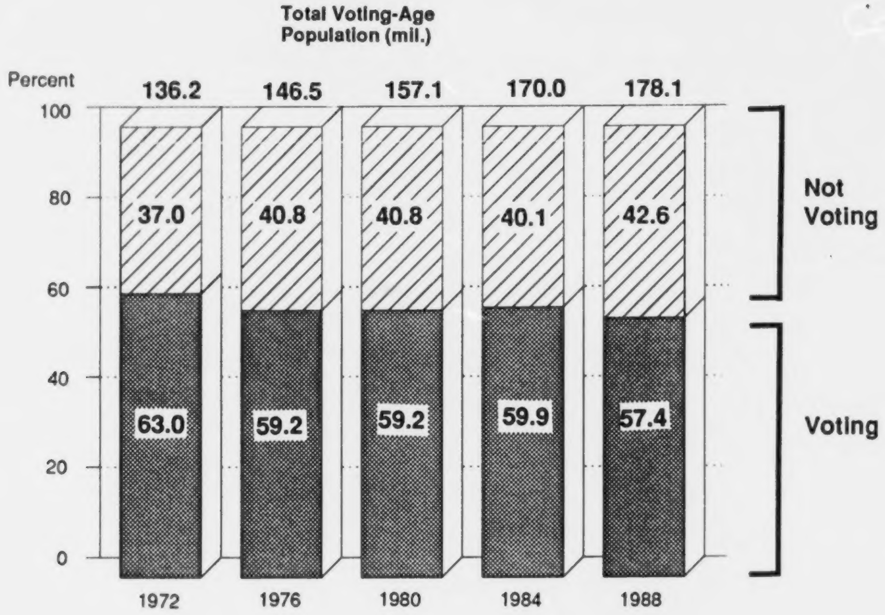
EVEN IN PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION YEARS, TENS OF MILLIONS OF ELIGIBLE AMERICAN VOTERS FAIL TO VOTE IN NATIONAL ELECTIONS

Percent of civilian noninstitutional population 18 years old and older who reported they voted. Figures differ from those based on population estimates and official vote counts. Reasons for differences in percentages may include overreporting of voting (reluctance of some persons in the sample who actually did not vote to so report).



Voter Turnout in the United States and Some Other Democratic Countries

	Percent	Year		Percent	Year
* Australia	94.2%	1984	Greece	80.2	1983
* Belgium	93.6	1985	Israel	78.8	1985
Austria	92.6	1983	Portugal	78.2	1985
Sweden	89.8	1986	Canada	75.7	1984
W. Germany	89.1	1983	Finland	75.7	1983
* Italy	89.0	1984	Great Britain	72.8	1983
New Zealand	88.5	1986	Japan	71.4	1983
Denmark	88.4	1984	Spain	70.7	1986
France	85.8	1981	U.S.	53.1#	1984
Netherlands	85.7	1986	Switzerland	48.9	1985
Norway	81.2	1981			

* Voting is compulsory

# This figure is obtained by dividing the number of votes cast by the estimated number of noninstitutionalized people 18 years and older. The higher percentage figures in the bar graph above are for those who reported they voted. Refer to the graph's headnote.

World Eagle graph. Data for years 1972-1984 from 1986 Statistical Abstract of the United States, Table 434. For year 1988, from Bureau of the Census.

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RESIDENT POPULATION OF VOTING-AGE AND PERCENT CASTING VOTES -- STATES: 1980 TO 1988

[As of **November**. Estimated population, 18 years old and over. Includes Armed Forces stationed in each State, aliens, and institutional population. For composition of regions, see fig. I, inside front cover]

REGION, DIVISION, AND STATE	VOTING AGE POPULATION (1,000)							PERCENT CASTING VOTES FOR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTORS			PERCENT CASTING VOTES FOR U.S. REPRESENTATIVES			
	1980	1982	1984	1986	1988, proj.			1980	1984	1988	1982	1984	1986	1988
					Total	Percent—								
						Black	Hispanic [1]							
U.S	**164,595**	**169,939**	**174,467**	**178,482**	**182,628**	**11.2**	**7.1**	**52.6**	**53.1**	**50.2**	**38.0**	**47.7**	**33.4**	**44.8**
Region:														
Northeast	36,287	36,903	37,522	37,997	38,402	10.1	5.7	52.9	54.6	51.7	39.7	51.1	32.6	46.4
Midwest	42,194	42,670	43,180	43,610	43,952	8.9	2.3	59.7	58.9	56.1	44.7	56.0	38.9	53.6
South	54,556	57,235	59,297	61,060	63,032	16.9	6.2	47.3	48.6	45.3	29.4	38.6	26.9	36.5
West	31,558	33,132	34,469	35,815	37,242	5.2	15.9	51.7	51.9	49.7	42.1	49.3	38.5	46.9
N.E	**9,144**	**9,333**	**9,559**	**9,738**	**9,920**	**4.0**	**2.4**	**59.8**	**58.7**	**57.8**	**44.8**	**55.5**	**37.4**	**53.7**
ME	811	829	854	874	893	.3	.4	64.5	64.7	62.2	54.5	63.5	48.3	62.2
NH	672	699	734	775	823	.6	.6	57.1	53.0	54.8	38.5	50.8	31.1	52.1
VT	370	382	392	402	412	.3	.7	57.7	59.9	59.0	43.2	57.6	47.0	58.3
MA	4,278	4,350	4,443	4,497	4,535	4.2	2.5	59.0	57.6	58.1	43.5	52.8	33.4	52.3
RI	710	720	735	750	764	3.2	2.2	58.6	55.7	53.0	46.2	53.0	40.8	51.2
CT	2,304	2,353	2,401	2,440	2,492	7.1	3.9	61.0	61.1	57.9	45.5	59.7	40.2	53.8
M.A	**27,143**	**27,569**	**27,963**	**28,259**	**28,482**	**12.3**	**6.8**	**50.6**	**53.2**	**49.6**	**37.9**	**49.6**	**31.0**	**43.8**
NY	12,933	13,113	13,301	13,406	13,480	14.5	10.3	48.0	51.2	48.1	35.7	46.7	29.1	40.8
NJ	5,422	5,557	5,687	5,812	5,943	12.7	7.3	54.9	56.6	52.2	38.6	52.6	26.7	46.7
PA	8,787	8,899	8,975	9,041	9,060	8.6	1.2	51.9	54.0	50.1	40.8	51.9	36.6	46.3
E.N.C	**29,766**	**30,009**	**30,322**	**30,649**	**30,914**	**10.8**	**2.8**	**58.7**	**58.1**	**54.9**	**43.3**	**54.8**	**37.0**	**52.1**
OH	7,744	7,798	7,841	7,908	7,970	10.0	.9	55.3	58.0	55.1	42.7	55.2	38.8	52.1
IN	3,892	3,938	3,993	4,032	4,066	7.5	1.4	57.6	55.9	53.3	45.6	54.6	38.6	52.1
IL	8,235	8,343	8,438	8,501	8,550	14.2	6.6	57.7	57.1	53.3	43.3	54.3	35.5	50.8
MI	6,520	6,497	6,566	6,691	6,791	13.2	1.6	60.0	57.9	54.0	43.2	52.6	34.8	50.9
WI	3,375	3,433	3,485	3,517	3,536	3.9	1.3	67.4	63.5	62.0	42.3	59.5	39.3	57.6
W.N.C	**12,428**	**12,661**	**12,858**	**12,961**	**13,037**	**4.4**	**1.2**	**62.1**	**60.9**	**58.9**	**48.1**	**58.7**	**43.4**	**57.0**
MN	2,933	3,001	3,058	3,112	3,161	1.3	.8	70.0	68.2	66.3	58.3	64.6	44.8	62.3
IA	2,099	2,113	2,120	2,098	2,068	1.6	.9	62.8	62.2	59.3	47.5	59.8	42.4	57.5
MO	3,578	3,635	3,708	3,766	3,821	9.7	.9	58.7	57.3	54.8	42.0	55.0	38.0	54.2
ND	467	485	493	488	483	.5	.5	64.6	62.7	61.5	53.8	62.7	58.6	62.1
SD	488	498	508	510	509	.4	.5	67.1	62.6	61.5	55.3	62.2	56.9	61.3
NE	1,133	1,157	1,172	1,170	1,167	3.0	1.7	56.6	55.6	56.6	44.9	55.5	47.4	56.2
KS	1,730	1,772	1,798	1,816	1,829	5.2	2.8	56.6	56.8	54.3	42.7	55.3	43.3	51.0
S.A	**27,273**	**28,521**	**29,737**	**30,872**	**32,137**	**18.8**	**3.6**	**46.2**	**47.5**	**44.3**	**29.3**	**38.6**	**26.8**	**37.7**
DE	432	444	459	475	490	16.4	1.5	54.7	55.5	51.0	42.4	52.9	33.9	48.0
MD	3,060	3,164	3,260	3,372	3,491	23.9	1.7	50.0	51.4	49.1	34.5	45.9	31.5	44.7
DC	495	491	489	488	489	64.8	3.1	35.4	43.1	39.5	22.9	33.1	26.0	35.0
VA	3,930	4,080	4,235	4,377	4,544	17.8	1.6	47.5	50.7	48.2	32.7	43.4	23.8	41.6
WV	1,400	1,421	1,422	1,412	1,398	2.9	.4	52.7	51.8	46.7	38.5	49.5	28.0	40.7
NC	4,274	4,424	4,593	4,738	4,913	20.2	.6	43.4	47.4	43.4	29.9	47.0	33.2	40.4
SC	2,215	2,305	2,382	2,452	2,534	27.3	.6	40.4	40.7	38.9	26.5	39.0	29.2	39.1
GA	3,870	4,041	4,231	4,430	4,665	24.4	.9	41.3	42.0	38.8	22.4	35.9	24.0	35.8
FL	7,578	8,152	8,665	9,127	9,614	11.8	9.4	48.7	48.2	44.7	[2] 27.1	[2] 28.1	[2] 23.5	[2] 31.7
E.S.C	**10,399**	**10,659**	**10,881**	**11,068**	**11,284**	**17.8**	**.4**	**49.5**	**50.2**	**46.7**	**32.6**	**41.6**	**30.5**	**40.9**
KY	2,596	2,656	2,697	2,724	2,746	6.9	.4	49.9	50.8	48.2	26.4	44.0	23.1	40.2
TN	3,323	3,406	3,490	3,568	3,661	14.7	.4	48.7	49.1	44.7	34.5	37.7	31.0	38.5
AL	2,757	2,826	2,892	2,947	3,010	23.2	.5	48.7	49.9	45.8	34.0	39.7	37.9	39.1
MS	1,723	1,771	1,802	1,830	1,867	31.4	.4	51.8	52.2	49.9	36.2	48.2	28.6	49.2
W.S.C	**18,884**	**18,055**	**18,679**	**19,120**	**19,610**	**13.4**	**13.9**	**47.8**	**49.5**	**46.2**	**27.6**	**36.9**	**25.1**	**31.9**
AR	1,628	1,667	1,706	1,732	1,761	13.6	.6	51.5	51.8	47.0	45.6	[2] 27.1	38.5	[2] 34.4
LA	2,919	3,064	3,129	3,157	3,175	27.5	2.3	53.0	54.5	51.3	[3] 16.9	[3] 20.5	[3] 12.4	[3] 6.5
OK	2,207	2,371	2,408	2,405	2,404	6.0	2.1	52.1	52.2	48.7	36.1	46.1	[2] 30.1	[2] 31.9
TX	10,130	10,952	11,436	11,826	12,270	11.2	21.1	44.6	47.2	44.2	26.0	40.9	25.5	38.1
Mt.	**8,067**	**8,580**	**8,967**	**9,311**	**9,691**	**2.4**	**12.3**	**53.9**	**52.8**	**51.7**	**41.6**	**50.5**	**40.3**	**49.5**
MT	560	579	591	588	586	.2	1.2	65.0	65.0	62.5	54.7	62.8	54.1	62.3
ID	646	668	686	693	701	.5	4.0	67.7	59.9	58.3	48.0	59.0	54.3	58.1
WY	332	355	354	352	351	.7	4.9	53.2	53.3	50.4	44.9	53.1	45.4	50.7
CO	2,123	2,268	2,353	2,414	2,489	3.6	10.6	55.8	55.0	55.1	41.7	53.0	42.2	52.8
NM	900	957	1,002	1,045	1,101	1.6	36.0	50.8	51.3	47.3	41.3	49.9	36.9	40.8
AZ	1,970	2,116	2,266	2,437	2,605	2.4	14.5	44.4	45.2	45.0	33.6	41.6	33.0	43.2
UT	935	985	1,023	1,051	1,078	.7	4.2	64.6	61.8	60.0	49.7	58.8	40.8	56.5
NV	602	652	691	732	780	5.9	7.3	41.2	41.6	44.9	35.9	39.2	35.1	44.1
Pac	**23,491**	**24,553**	**25,502**	**26,504**	**27,552**	**6.2**	**17.2**	**51.0**	**51.6**	**49.0**	**42.3**	**48.8**	**37.9**	**46.0**
WA	3,040	3,143	3,228	3,323	3,417	2.3	3.0	57.3	58.4	54.6	41.6	56.0	39.0	50.7
OR	1,929	1,955	1,984	2,018	2,051	1.4	2.6	61.2	61.9	58.6	51.9	60.6	51.1	49.9
CA	17,548	18,408	19,181	20,015	20,875	7.5	21.6	48.9	49.6	47.4	41.2	46.7	36.0	44.9
AK	277	318	351	366	385	3.3	2.2	57.3	59.3	51.9	57.0	58.8	49.2	50.1
HI	697	729	758	784	824	1.8	6.3	43.5	44.3	43.0	40.9	36.4	42.2	41.3

[1] Hispanic persons may be of any race.
[2] State law does not require tabulation of votes for unopposed candidates.
[3] See footnote 9, table 422.

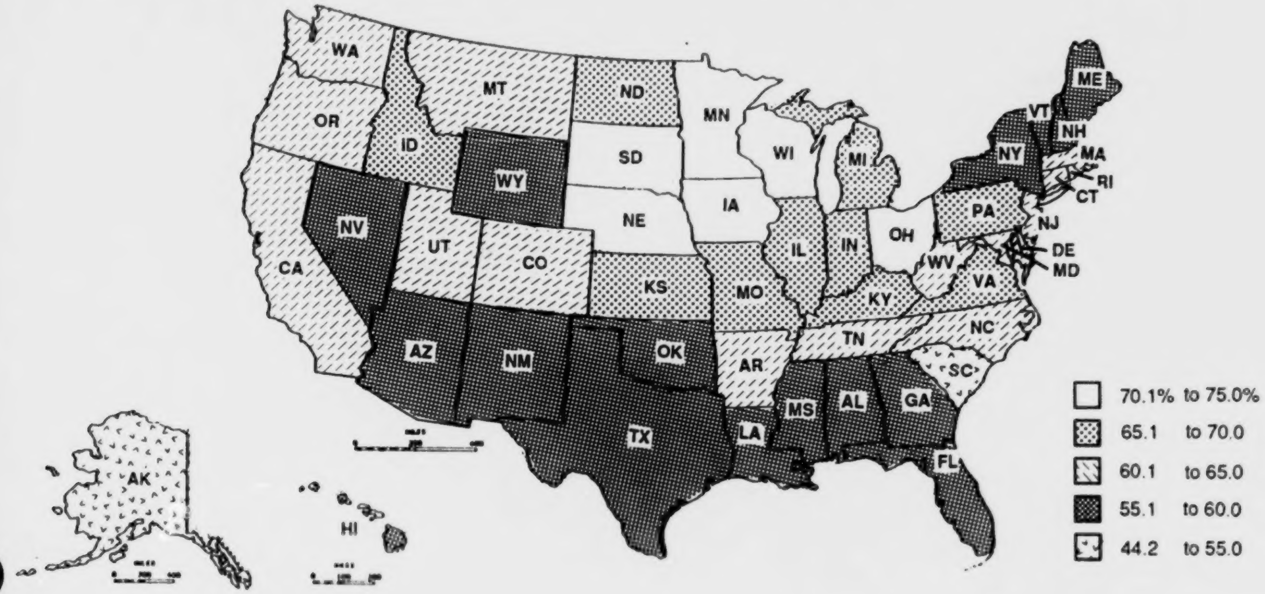
Source: Compiled by U.S. Bureau of the Census. Population data from U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, series P-25, No. 1019; votes cast from Elections Research Center, Washington, DC, *America Votes*, biennial (copyright).

Source: Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990. P. 265, Table 444.

In Trying To Understand Why People Do Or Do Not Return Census Forms, The Only Pattern Officials Have Found Is THE RESPONSE TO THE CENSUS CLOSELY PARALLELS VOTER TURNOUT RATES, STATE BY STATE

Census Returns

Percentages of households that had returned 1990 census forms as of Friday, April 19.


WA
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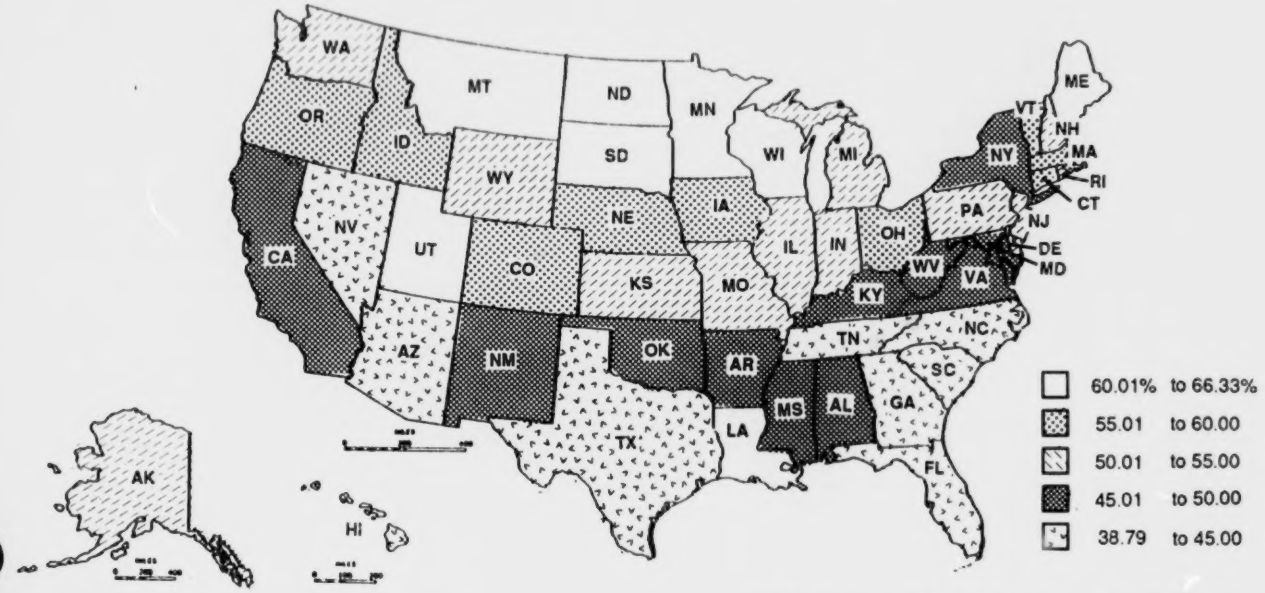
VA
WV
PA
NY
VT
ME
NH
MA
RI
CT
NJ
DE
MD
AK
HI
☐ 70.1% to 75.0%
▨ 65.1 to 70.0
▨ 60.1 to 65.0
■ 55.1 to 60.0
▨ 44.2 to 55.0

Voter Turnout

Percent of voting-age population that voted in the 1988 national election.


WA
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SC
NC
VA
WV
PA
NY
VT
ME
NH
MA
RI
CT
NJ
DE
MD
AK
HI
☐ 60.01% to 66.33%
▨ 55.01 to 60.00
▨ 50.01 to 55.00
■ 45.01 to 50.00
▨ 38.79 to 45.00

World Eagle maps. Based on those in The New York Times, Sunday, April 22, 1990. Section 4, P.4.

LANGUAGES OF SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

	Number of languages		*Principal languages* (1)	*Percentage of population speaking language as:*		*Language used as:*				
	Total	*Principal*		*Mother tongue*	*Second language*	*Official language*	*Lingua franca*	*Medium of instruction in:*		
								Lower primary	*Upper primary*	*Post-primary*
Low-income economies										
1 Mali	10	4	Bambara	31	20		x			
			Fulfulde	20						
			Arabic				x			
			French	low		x		x	x	x
2 Burkina Faso	10 (2)	5	Mossi	50			x			
			French	low		x		x	x	x
3 Niger	7 (2)	7	Hausa	46	24		x			
			Songhai		19					
			French	low		x		x	x	x
4 Gambia	8	5	Manding	41	19		x			
			Wolof	13			x			
			Fulfulde	14						
			English	low		x		x	x	x
5 Somalia	4 (2)	4	Somali	95	2	x		x	x	x
			Arabic			x				
			English			x				
			Italian			x				
6 Chad	15 (2)	3	Arabic	13	40		x	x	x	
			Sara	19	10		x	x		
			French	low	13	x		x	x	x
7 Ethiopia	70	4	Amharic	31	40	x	x	x	x	
			Tigrinya	14			x			
			Galla	35						
			English	low						x
8 Zaire	300	5	Swahili	36	13		x	x		
			Lingala	28	41		x	x		
			Luba	17			x	x		
			Kongo	12	18		x	x		
			French	low		x			x	x
9 Malawi	15 (2)	4	Nyanja	50	10		x	x		
			Lomwe	15						
			Yao	14						
			English		5	x			x	x
10 Guinea Bissau	NA	5	Crioulo			x				
			Portuguese	low		x		x	x	x
11 Tanzania	120	3	Sukuma	13						
			Swahili	.6	90	x	x	x	x	x
			English	low	15					x
12 Burundi	3	3	Rundi	99		x				
			Swahili		10					
			French	low		x		x	x	x
13 Uganda	30 (2)	7	Runyankore	20		x				
			Luganda	18	20		x			
			Luo	12		x				
			Swahili		35		x			
			Lugbara			x				
			Ateso/							
			Akarimo-jong							
			English	low		x			x	x
14 Togo	15 (2)	4	Ewe	44	6		x	x		
			Kabiye		20			x		
			Hausa				x			
			French	low		x			x	x
15 Central African Republic	10 (2)	4	Banda	31						
			Gaya	29						
			Sango	25			x			
			French	low		x		x	x	x
16 Madagascar	NA	2	Malagasy				x	x		
			French	low		x			x	x
17 Benin	10 (2)	4	Fon-Ewe	60			x			
			Yoruba	13						
			Bariba	12						
			French	low		x		x	x	x
18 Rwanda	3 (2)	3	Kinyarwanda	90	8	x		x		
			Swahili	10			x			
			French	low		x		x	x	x
19 Kenya	50	7	Swahili	5	60	x	x	x		
			Kikuyu	25		x				
			Luhya			x				
			Luo			x				
			Kamba			x				
			English	low		x		x	x	x
20 Sierra Leone	18	4	Mende	31	5		x			
			Temne	25	45					
			Krio				x			
			English	low		x		x	x	x
21 Guinea	15 (2)	4	Malinke	30	18		x			
			Fulfulde	28	5					
			SouSou	16						
			French			x		x	x	x

continued →

34

LANGUAGES continued

22 Ghana	54	9	Dagbani	16		×				
			Ewe	12		×				
			Akan	40			×	×		
			Hausa		60		×			
			Adangme			×				
			Nzema			×				
			Ga			×				
			Dagaari			×				
			English	low		×			×	×
23 Sudan	100	13	Arabic	50	10	×	×	×	×	×
			Shilluk			×				
			Bari			×				
			Latuka			×				
			Zande			×				
			Kreish			×				
			Ndogo			×				
			Moru			×				
			English	low			×			
24 Senegal	10 (2)	8	Wolof	42	40		×	×		
			Fula	19	5		×	×		
			Serer	15		×				
			Diola	7		×				
			Malinke	6			×	×		
			Soninke	3		×				
			Arabic		high					
			French	low		×			×	×
25 Mozambique	20	8	Portuguese	low		×		×	×	×
Middle-income oil importers										
26 Mauritania	5	6	Arabic	80	7		×			
			Fulfulde		13		×			
			Wolof				×			
			French	low		×		×	×	×
27 Liberia	28	4	Bassa	14	23					
			Kpelle	20	40					
			Krio	40	50		×			
			English	low		×	×	×	×	×
28 Zambia	73	8	Bemba	31	25		×	×		
			Nyanja	11	42		×	×		
			Tonga	11		×				
			Kaonde			×				
			Lunda			×				
			Luvale			×				
			English	low		×			×	×
29 Lesotho	2	2	Sotho	95	4		×	×		
			English	low		×			×	×
30 Côte d'Ivoire	60	5	Akan	25						
			Dyula	16	50		×			
			Anyi-Baoule	20						
			Senoufo	12						
			French	low	35	×		×	×	×
31 Zimbabwe	20 (2)	3	Shona	75			×	×	×	
			Ndebele	16		×		×		
			English	low		×				×
32 Swaziland	NA	3	Swati	90			×	×		
			English	low		×			×	×
33 Botswana	3	2	Tswana	90	9	×	×	×		
			English	low		×			×	×
34 Mauritius	NA	8	French	low		×				
			English	low		×				
35 Nigeria	350 (2)	11	Hausa	30	20		×	×		
			Yoruba	20			×	×		
			Ibo	10		×				
			Fulfulde				×	×		
			Pidgin English				×			
			Kanuri				×			
			Edo			×				
			Ijo			×				
			Efik			×				
			Idoma			×				
			English	low		×			×	×
36 Cameroon	200	9	Bamileke	27						
			Fang	18						
			Ewondo				×			
			Fulfulde				×			
			French	low		×		×	×	×
			English	low		×		×	×	×
37 Congo, People's Republic	15 (2)	4	Kongo	52			×			
			Teke	25						
			Lingala				×			
			French	low		×		×	×	×
38 Gabon	15 (2)	4	Fang	30	20		×			
			Eshira	20						
			Pidgin English				×			
			French	low		×		×	×	×
39 Angola	20	4	Kongo	15						
			Kimbundu	23						
			Umbundu	30	20					
			Portuguese	low	35	×		×	×	×

(1) Only those languages for which data were available are shown. See the technical notes for other principal languages.
(2) Estimates may understate the actual number.
Source: World Bank Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (1988).

Reprinted with permission from World Bank, Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion (Washington, DC: World Bank, 1988), pp. 154-56.

SOVIET FOREIGN TRADE

Calendar Years 1989, 1988, 1987

(billions of rubles)

Turnover = Total Trade (Exports + Imports)

TOTAL

	1989	1988	1987
Turnover	140.9	132.1555	128.8834
Exports	68.8	67.1154	68.1422
Imports	72.1	65.0401	60.7412

Exchange rate of USSR ruble to the US dollar during latter months of 1989 averaged approximately 0.633. This meant that the ruble was worth approximately US$1.60 during those months.

United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics. April 1990. P. 186. Table 52.

BY GROUPS OF COUNTRIES

	1989	1988	1987
Socialist Countries			
Turnover	86.9	86.2561	86.3209
Exports	42.3	42.8828	44.1997
Imports	44.6	43.3733	42.1212
Including:			
CMEA Member Countries			
Turnover	78.6	78.8771	79.5520
Exports	38.0	39.0470	40.6960
Imports	40.6	39.8301	38.8560

	1989	1988	1987
Industrial Capitalist Countries			
Turnover	36.9	30.9862	28.0585
Exports	16.4	14.6656	14.1856
Imports	20.5	16.3206	13.8729
Developing Countries			
Turnover	17.1	14.9132	14.5040
Exports	10.1	9.5670	9.7569
Imports	7.0	5.3462	4.7471

Countries It Had Largest Total Trade (Turnover) With, Calendar Years 1989, 1988, and 1987

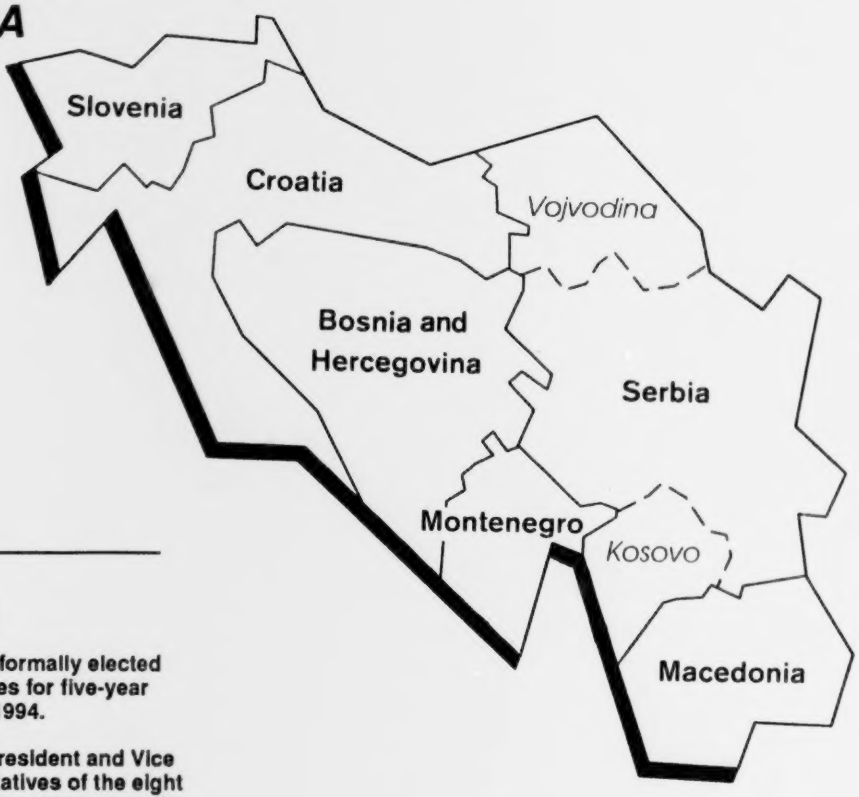
(billions of rubles)

	1989	1988	1987
Germany-- GDR	13.8	14.2176	14.7291
Bulgaria	13.5	12.9668	12.8280
Poland	13.2	13.4073	12.8715
Czechoslovakia	12.9	13.2019	13.6841
Hungary	9.0	9.4275	9.6803
Cuba	7.7	7.5615	7.5586
Germany - FRG	6.6	5.6285	4.9571
Romania	5.2	4.7753	4.8864
Yugoslavia	4.3	3.8412	3.9743
Finland	3.9	3.7170	3.7427
Japan	3.5	3.1351	2.6007
Italy	3.5	3.0343	3.4907
United States	3.4	2.1041	1.1985

	1989	1988	1987
United Kingdom	3.2	2.4172	2.1105
India	3.0	2.2520	2.1785
France	2.6	2.7688	2.6082
China (PRC)	2.4	1.8501	1.4749
Korea, No.	1.5	1.6017	1.2321
Vietnam	1.4	1.7822	1.7734
Mongolian Peo.Rep.	1.4	1.5370	1.5406
Switzerland	1.4	1.1775	0.8839
Austria	1.4	1.2	--
Netherlands	1.4	1.0	--
Belgium	1.3	1.1	--
Iraq	1.1	1.2705	1.1126
Sweden	1.0	--	--

Source: 1988 and 1987 figures from Journal of the US-USSR Trade Economic Council, Inc. Vol. 14, No. 2, 1989. Pp. 27-30. 1989 figures from Foreign Trade of the USSR. No. 3, 1990. Moscow.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SOCIALIST FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF YUGOSLAVIA



6 Republics

- Slovenia
- Croatia
- Bosnia and Hercegovina
- Serbia
- Montenegro
- Macedonia

2 Provinces

- Vojvodina
- Kosovo

THE PRESIDENCY

Members of the state Presidency are formally elected by their respective regional assemblies for five-year terms. New elections will be held in 1994.

Within the Presidency, the posts of President and Vice President rotate among the representatives of the eight republics and provinces. The rotation occurs annually in May and follows a set pattern:

Date	President Republic/Province	Vice President Republic/Province
1989-90	Slovenia	Serbia
1990-91	Serbia	Croatia
1991-92	Croatia	Montenegro
1992-93	Montenegro	Vojvodina
1993-94	Vojvodina	Kosovo
1994-95	Kosovo	Macedonia
1995-96	Macedonia	Bosnia-Hercegovina
1996-97	Bosnia-Hercegovina	Slovenia

All eight Presidency Members were elected in 1989:

Janez Drnovsek	Slovenia
Borisav Jovic	Serbia
Stipe Suvar	Croatia
Nenad Bucin	Montenegro
Dragutin Zelenovic	Vojvodina
Riza Sapundzlju	Kosovo
Vasil Tupurkovski	Macedonia
Bogic Bogicevic	Bosnia-Hercegovina

THE FEDERAL EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Federal Executive Council is the executive body of the Federal Assembly, the equivalent of a cabinet. The FEC President (prime minister) is nominated by the collective state Presidency and approved by the Federal Assembly. The vice presidents, federal secretaries, and members without portfolio are selected by the FEC President and approved by the Federal Assembly.

Source: U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. January 1990.

PROFILES

Concerning Efforts to Impose Some Limits On The Number Of Terms Legislators May Serve.

The following has been excerpted from an article by Robert Reinhold in The New York Times, Sunday, April 29, 1990. Sec. 4, p.4.

"...Legislators do tend to stay. The average tenure in the California Senate is 17 years. In New York, Senate terms average 11 to 12 years, Assembly terms 8 to 9.

Tn Washington, too, incumbency is its own reward; in the United States House of Representatives, 98.5 percent of incumbents who ran in 1988 were re-elected, as were 86 percent in the Senate.

Critics say this has produced a class of career office-holders who have cloaked themselves with formidable advantages of incumbency, lost touch with the people they serve and, in some cases, sunk into cynical corruption. The California Legislature is all but paralyzed in dealing with the state's problems and is mired in a vote-selling scandal. Julian Palmer, executive director of New York State Common Cause, asserts that in New York more incumbents have been indicted than lost re-election in recent years...."

Senior congressmen in the House of Representatives.

	Consecutive 2-year terms
Jamie L. Whitten (D-MS)	25
Charles E. Bennett (D-FL)	21
Jack Brooks (D-TX)	19
William H. Natcher (D-NY)	19
John D. Dingell (D-MI)	18
Dante B. Fascell (D-FL)	18
William S. Broomfield (R-MI)	17
Robert H. Michel (R-IL)	17
Silvio O. Conte (R-MA)	16
Robert W. Kastenmeier (D-WI)	16
Dan Rostenkowski (D-IL)	16
Neal Smith (D-IA)	16
Henry B. Gonzalez (D-TX)	15
Morris K. Udall (D-AZ)	15
Don Edwards (D-CA)	14
Sam M. Gibbons (D-FL)	14
Augustus F. Hawkins (D-CA)	14
Frank Horton (R-NY)	14
Joseph M. McDade (R-PA)	14
J. J. Pickle (D-TX)	14
James H. Quillen (R-TN)	14
Edward R. Roybal (D-CA)	14

A New Grouping of Nations
THE GROUP OF 24:

The 12 E.C. member states (Belgium, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, United Kingdom), the 6 member states of the European Free Trade Association (Austria, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland), Canada, the United States, Japan, Australia, New Zealand and Turkey.

World Counsel

The following is reprinted with permission from Reader's Digest, June 1990. P.33.

Habits are first cobwebs, then cables.
Spanish proverb

God save you from a bad neighbor and from a beginner on the fiddle.
Italian proverb

A trout in the pot is better than a salmon in the sea.
Irish proverb

Before you marry, keep your two eyes open; after you marry, shut one.
Jamaican proverb

Even a small star shines in the darkness.
Finnish proverb

He who cannot dance puts the blame on the floor.
Hindi proverb

That which is brief, if it be good, is good twice over.
Spanish proverb

If you want your dreams to come true, don't sleep.
Yiddish proverb

Faults are thick where love is thin.
British proverb

With time and patience the mulberry leaf becomes a silk gown.
Chinese proverb

Too many captains may steer a boat up a mountainside.
Korean proverb

Treat your guest as a guest for two days; on the third day, give him a hoe.
Swahili proverb

WORLDQUIZ

(ANSWERS are on Page 36)

In response to many requests for more than one WORLDQUIZ per year, we will run an additional WORLDQUIZ in the January 1991 issue.

1. Approximately how many people live in the U.S.? (a) 42 million (b) 88 million (c) 145 million (d) 250 million (e) 486 million ______________

2. Canada's population is approximately what percent of that of the U.S.? (a) 10% (b) 25% (c) 50% (d) about the same ______________

3. Approximately how may people are there in the world today? (a) 850 million (b) 2.5 billion (c) 5.2 billion (d) 10.5 billion

4.5. Name the most northern and the most southern of the three USSR Baltic Republics

____

6. The name of the Province in Canada "making noises", again, about seceding is

____

7.8. Name two of the four countries which border Nigeria

____

____

9. How many times larger than one thousand is one million? ______________

10. Of all the primary energy produced in the world today (each year, say), how much is produced by U.S.? Approximately (a) 21% (b) 5% (c) 54% (d) 36%

____

11.12. There has been much talk and planning for the reunification of the two "halves" of which European country? ______________________________

Such possible reunification has caused which country to be nervous about the integrity of its borders/territory?

____

13. What percent of the world's population lives in the more that 50 countries of Africa? (51 plus Namibia and Western Sahara) (a) about 2% (b) about 12% (c) 20 to 21% (d) a little more than 30% ______________

14.15.16. Name three of the six states which border Oklahoma ________________________

17.18. The name given to Mikhail Gorbachev's policy of openness is ______________, and to his policy of restructuring ______________________________

19. One of the 50 states in the U.S. has more than 10% of the population of the U.S. It is: ______________

20.21.22.23. The other four (in any order) of the five most populous states in the U.S. are:

____

____

24. Name of African National Congress (ANC) leader released from prison this year and who toured parts of the U.S. this summer: ________________________

25. Which country is the U.S.'s largest total trade (exports plus imports) partner? ________________________

26. Approximately what percent of the world's Gross National Product does the U.S. produce? (a) 5% (b) 10% (c) 25% (d) 40% ______________

In which country would you find each of the following?

27. Mt. Kilimanjaro ______________
28. Machu Picchu ______________
29. Khyber Pass between Afghanistan and ______________
30. The Forum Romanum ______________
31. Tiananmen Square ______________
32. The Acropolis ______________
33. The Brandenburg Gate ______________
34. The Louvre ______________

35.36 Which are the two most populous countries of Latin America? ______________________________

True or False: (37-40)

37. The land masses of the U.S. (all 50 States), China, Europe, and India could all fit within the boundaries of Africa ______________

38. The value of U.S. merchandise exports currently exceeds the value of its merchandise imports.

____

39. The debt of the Federal Government is more than $1 trillion. ______________

40. Each year, the U.S. currently imports over one-third of the oil it uses ______________

41. Which country has the largest reserves of natural gas and produces the largest amount of crude oil?

____

42. Far and away the largest major weapons importer in the Third World in the last 15 years has been (a) Far East (b) North Africa (c) Sub-Saharan Africa (d) Central America (e) Middle East ______________

continued ⟶

WORLDQUIZ continued

43. The U.S. is the 4th most populous country in the world. Approximately what percent of the world's population does it have? ________________

44.45. The names of Canada's two most populous Provinces which contain about 62% of its population are: ____________________________

46. Estimates of earthquake toll (four days after the event) in this country in June 1990 were 50,000 dead; 100,000 to 200,000 injured; 500,000 homeless:

____

47. Which country is on East Germany's eastern border?

____

48. 49. Approximately how may people live in the 53 countries of Africa? ____________
Which African country has the largest population?

____

50. Can you name the eastern-most state in the U.S.

____

51.52. Which two countries border Nicaragua?

____

53. What do Estonia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan have in common? ____________________________

54. In Iran, the majority of that country's 52 million people belong to the ________________branch of Islam.

55. The other major Muslim branch is the

____

56. Which country is on Albania's northern border?

____

57. The name of the Republic of South Africa's policy which most of the world objects to is ______________

In which country would you find each of these major cities?

58. Baghdad ______________
59. Damascus ______________
60. Cairo ______________
61. Casablanca ______________
62. Toronto ______________
63. Johannesburg ______________
64. San Salvador ______________
65. Beirut ______________
66. Soweto ______________
67. Tehran ______________
68. Mecca ______________
69. Berlin ______________
70. Barcelona ______________
71. Dhaka ______________
72. Manila ______________
73. Sao Paulo ______________

74.75.76. Of the 5 Great Lakes, which is the largest?

____
Which is easternmost? ____________________
Which lies north-south? ____________________

77.78.79.80.81. Name 5 of the 12 countries which border USSR: ____________________________

____

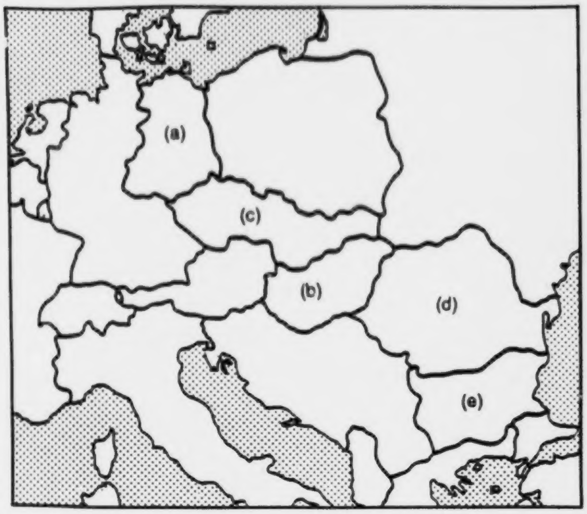
____

82.83. Name two of the four countries that touch South Africa's northern border ____________________

____

84.85.86.87. Identify on the map:

(a) ______________
(b) ______________
(c) ______________
(d) ______________
(e) ______________



89.90 Name two of the four countries which border Israel

____

91. Prime Minister of Canada
92. Chancellor of Federal Republic of Germany
93. President of Czechoslovakia
94. Prime Minister of United Kingdom
95. Secretary of State, USA
96. President of France
97. General Secretary of the Communist Party, USSR
98. President & Prime Minister of South Africa
99. Chief Justice, U.S. Supreme Court
100. Premier of East Germany

(a) Ronald Reagan
(b) Muammar el-Quaddafi
(c) Leonid Brezhnev
(d) William Rehnquist
(e) Mikhail Gorbachev
(f) Helmut Kohl
(g) Margaret Thatcher
(h) Brian Mulroney
(i) Lothar DeMaiziere
(j) Henry Kissinger
(k) Gen. Manuel Noriega
(l) James Baker
(m) Richard Nixon
(n) Francois Mitterand
(o) Vaclav Havel
(p) F.W. DeKlerk

____

OPINION

AMERICA'S YOUNG HAVE TUNED-OUT ON POLITICS

The following, reprinted courtesy of The Boston Globe, was written by Chris Black and appeared in that newspaper May 13, 1990.

A young American coming of age in the 1990s has mastered computer games but cannot name his congressman. He is, by and large, a political illiterate, and this is generating anxiety about the future vitality of democracy in the United States.

A mountain of evidence reveals widespread ignorance of the fundamental tenets of democratic government and basic responsibilities of citizenship among young Americans. Students of government and politics worry that the United States is breeding a generation of self-centered know-nothings whose disengagement threatens the founding fathers' great American experiment in its third century.

"This is the age of indifference," said pollster Andrew Kohut, who describes those who came of age after Watergate as "a political generation without any edge."

Young Americans are so tuned out of the political process that they are unaware that freedom carries a price tag, and that the successful operation of a representative democracy depends upon the participation of an informed populace. Given this disquieting trend, government may soon become the exclusive domain of extremists and special-interest groups.

Some sobering statistics

Consider the evidence:

- Nearly half of all baby-boomers say politics is not important to their lives.
- Young people are so self-absorbed that a significant minority say they would not volunteer for military service even in the face of a clear national emergency.
- While 72 percent rank career success as an important goal in life, only one in four put a priority on the notion of helping make the community a better place.
- Almost half of the nation's 12th-graders do not know that the quote "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal..." comes from the Declaration of Independence.
- Less than 6 percent of high school seniors demonstrate in-depth knowledge on a wide range of political institutions and processes. Fewer than one in five can describe in writing the responsibilities of the president of the United States.
- Only 29 percent of the nation's newest and youngest voters between the ages of 18 and 24 bothered to vote in the 1988 presidential election – the lowest number of any age group.

"We have had peace and prosperity for a relatively long period of time," said Kohut. "There is a sort of mesmerizing quality to good times. There is a Don't Worry-Be Happy ethic that prevails, particularly among young people who have had less experience with hard times."

Studies comparing the performance of American students to their counterparts in other industrialized nations show they also lag behind in academic achievement. An obsession with personal happiness and financial success crowds out any concern or awareness of social responsibility.

During focus group interviews conducted for People for the American Way last year, young people were asked to name some qualities that make this country special. They sat in silence until one youth offered, "Cable TV." Asked how more young people could be encouraged to vote, one young woman suggested, "Pay them."

Youthful cynicism rampant

By a more than 2-to-1 margin, social-studies teachers say this generation is markedly less involved and less interested in public affairs than their older brothers and sisters.

These young Americans are truly the children of the television age, fast food, computerization and absentee parents. Their parents work full time, commute long distances and are often too busy to provide an example by volunteering on community projects. Many have divorced single parents, whose lives minimize the opportunities for passing on traditional civic values. Many students spend more time watching television than doing homework. Inordinantly influenced by the political developments of the last decade, they have become cynical before their time.

A typical 18-year-old American youth was 8 years old when Ronald Reagan became president. He has clear recollections of no other president. He matured during the Reagan administration, absorbing the survival-of-the-fittest, minimalist-government ethic that prevailed during those years. The typical 24-year-old was born in 1966. She was 8 years old when Nixon resigned in disgrace, 10 years old when Jimmy Carter won election, 14 years old when Reagan took office and became eligible to vote in 1984, the year Reagan trounced Walter F. Mondale.

Their formative years coincided with the spread of widespread cynicism about politicians and government and the explosion of negative campaigning that is typified by 30-second electronic blasts of poison and derision. For many, government is a turn-off.

"There is no sense of the most elementary type of responsibility, like voting," among young people, said Arthur J. Kropp, president of People for the American Way. "There is certainly not any recognition or understanding that democracy depends upon an engaged and active citizenry."

Many of these young people are simply following the lead of their elders.

"We cannot expect our young people to be better citizens than the adults around them," said a report by People for the American Way. "Today, an ever-increasing number of Americans are reluctant to exercise even the most basic responsibilities of citizenship."

The US government is supposed to be of, by and for the people, but increasingly many adults think the government is the responsibility and concern of someone else.

"American voters," concluded a two-year research effort by the Markle Commission on the Media and the Electorate,"do not seem to understand their rightful place in the operation of American democracy." Although the commission was established to review media performance in the 1988 presidential election, research generated such overwhelming evidence of voter disengagement that its central finding became citizen abdication of the electoral process. It is the latest study to suggest that the very concept of citizenship is on the wane in the United States.

Parental responsibility

A national Harris poll conducted for the Markle Commission found that fully half of the American electorate could not identify Michael Dukakis' running mate, Texas Sen. Lloyd M. Bentsen Jr., in Sep-

continued ⟶

ANSWERS TO WORLDQUIZ

1.(d) 2.(a) 3.(c) 4.5.Estonia, Lithuania 6.Quebec 7.8.Benin, Niger, Chad, Cameroon 9.one thousand 10.(a) 11.Germany 12.Poland 13.(b) 14.15.16.AR,MO,KS,CO,NM,TX 17.Glasnost 18.Perestroika 19.CA 20.21.22.23.NY,TX,FL, PA 24.Nelson Mandela 25.Canada 26.(c) 17.Tanzania 28.Peru 29.Pakistan 30.Italy 31.China 32.Greece 33.East Germany (or Germany) 34.France 35.36.Brazil & Mexico 37.True 38.False 39.True 40.True 41.USSR 42.(e) 43. 4% or 5% 44.45.Ontario and Quebec 46.Iran 47.Poland 48. 660 million 49.Nigeria 50.Q&A were part of a promotional mailing from Scientific American: Alaska is the eastern-most state, also the western-most. The 180th meridian runs through it, so it is both. 51.52.Honduras & Costa Rica 53.They are all republics of USSR. 54.Shiite or Shia 55.Sunni 56.Yugoslavia 57.apartheid 58.Iraq 59.Syria 60.Egypt 61.Morocco 62.Canada 63.South Africa 64.El Salvador 65.Lebanon 66.South Africa 67.Iran 68.Saudi Arabia 69.East Germany (or Germany) 70.Spain 71.Bangladesh 72.Philippines 73.Brazil 74.Superior 75.Ontario 76.Michigan 77.78.79.80.81.Norway, Finland, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan, China, Mongolia, North Korea 82.83.Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique 84.E.Germany 85.Hungary 86.Czechoslovakia 87.Romania 88.Bulgaria 89.90.Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan 91.(h) 92.(f) 93.(o) 94.(g) 95.(l) 96.(n) 97.(e) 98.(p) 99.(d) 100.(i)

TUNED OUT ON POLITICS continued

tember of 1988. Voter turnout in the 1988 presidential election was the lowest in 64 years. Barely six out of every 10 households bothered to return their 1990 Census forms this spring. Federal income-tax evasion is rising. Not only is newspaper readership, a barometer of interest in public affairs, declining as a percentage of the population, but network news broadcasts, an alternative source of information, draw less than half the audience of situation comedies such as "The Cosby Show" and "Roseanne."

"What is new and disturbing," among voters the Markle Commission found,"is the seeming lack of concern about their own ignorance." The Markle Commission concluded that voters were unable to distinguish the difference between truth and lies during the presidential campaign.

With indifference and ignorance rampant among adults, it is not surprising that their children would also be oblivious to democratic principles and impervious to community and social duties. But People for the American Way suggests that this may be a potential "opportunity in disguise. By huge margins, young people and teachers see parents as the key to shaping strong participatory values.... To the extent that parents themselves have not been shown how to encourage their children's involvement, and to the extent that they could reasonably be engaged in such efforts, the potential for positive change is tremendous."

To this end, the Markle Commission recommends massive public education and advertising to revitalize public participation in politics, much like the campaigns that changed dietary habits to lower blood cholesterol and persuaded millions to quit smoking. People for the American Way recommends more civics classes, voter-registration campaigns and participation in a service project as a requirement for a high school diploma.

If democracy is to survive, informed observers agree, everyone needs to go back to school. ❖

"Justice and freedom; discussion and criticism; intelligence and character -- these are the indispensable ingredients of the democratic state. We can be rich and powerful without them. But not for long."

Robert Maynard Hutchins, 1899-1977, President (1929-45) and chancellor (1945-51) of University of Chicago

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VOLUME XIV CUMULATIVE INDEX

Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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WORLDQUIZ: S33-34.
YOUTH: An Opinion That America's Young Have Tuned-Out on Politics, S35-36.
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Data • Maps • Graphs

OCTOBER 1990
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NEXT MONTH'S FOCUS SECTION:
THE DEVELOPING WORLD

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January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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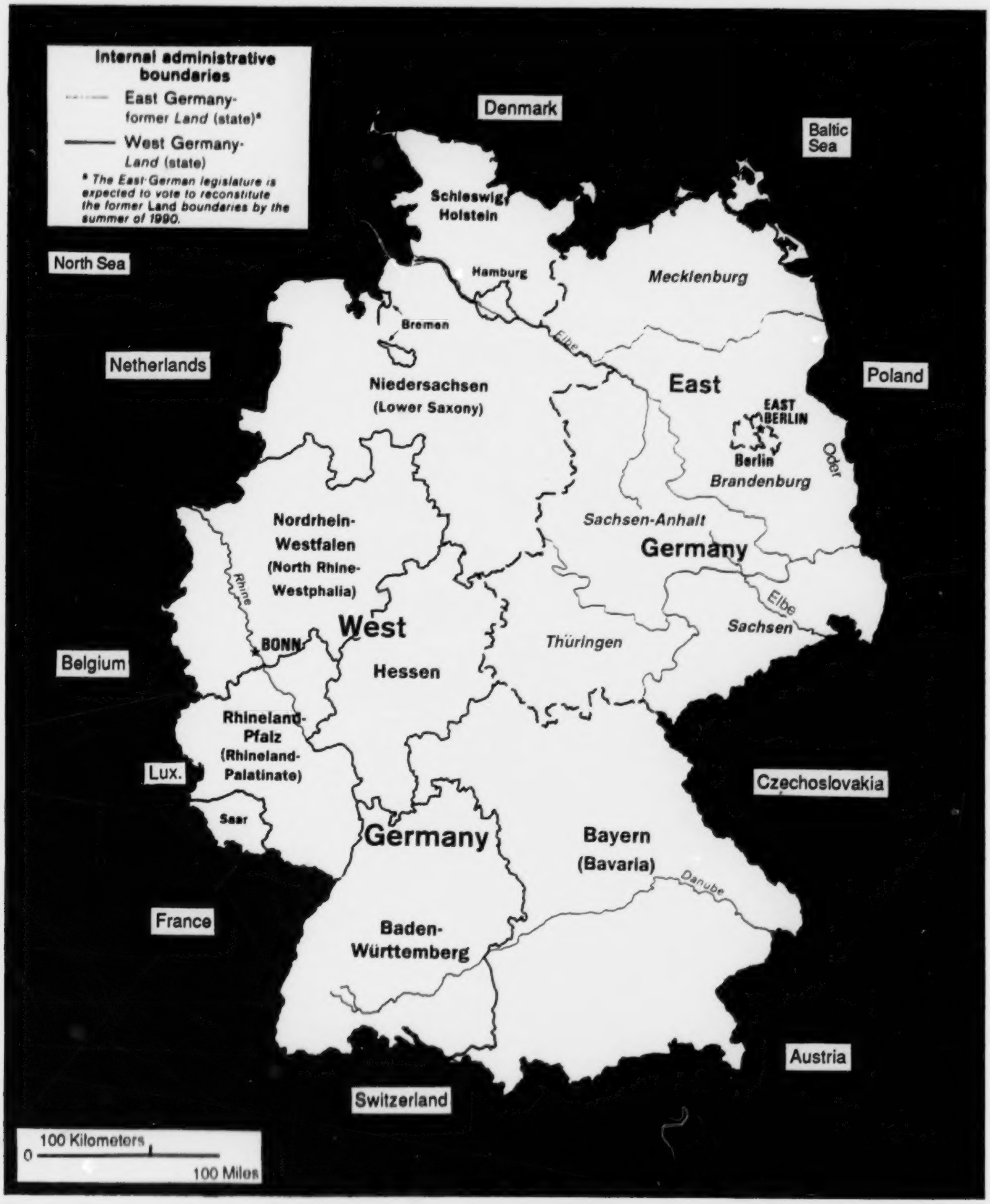
THE LÄNDER (STATES) OF BOTH EAST GERMANY AND WEST GERMANY


Internal administrative boundaries
East Germany- former Land (state)*
West Germany- Land (state)
* The East German legislature is expected to vote to reconstitute the former Land boundaries by the summer of 1990.
Denmark
Baltic Sea
North Sea
Schleswig-Holstein
Hamburg
Mecklenburg
Bremen
Elbe
Netherlands
Poland
East
Niedersachsen (Lower Saxony)
EAST BERLIN
Berlin
Oder
Brandenburg
Nordrhein-Westfalen (North Rhine-Westphalia)
Sachsen-Anhalt
Germany
Rhine
Elbe
Sachsen
West
BONN
Thüringen
Belgium
Hessen
Rhineland-Pfalz (Rhineland-Palatinate)
Lux.
Czechoslovakia
Saar
Germany
Bayern (Bavaria)
Danube
France
Baden-Württemberg
Austria
Switzerland
0
100 Kilometers
100 Miles

Source: U.S. Department of State.

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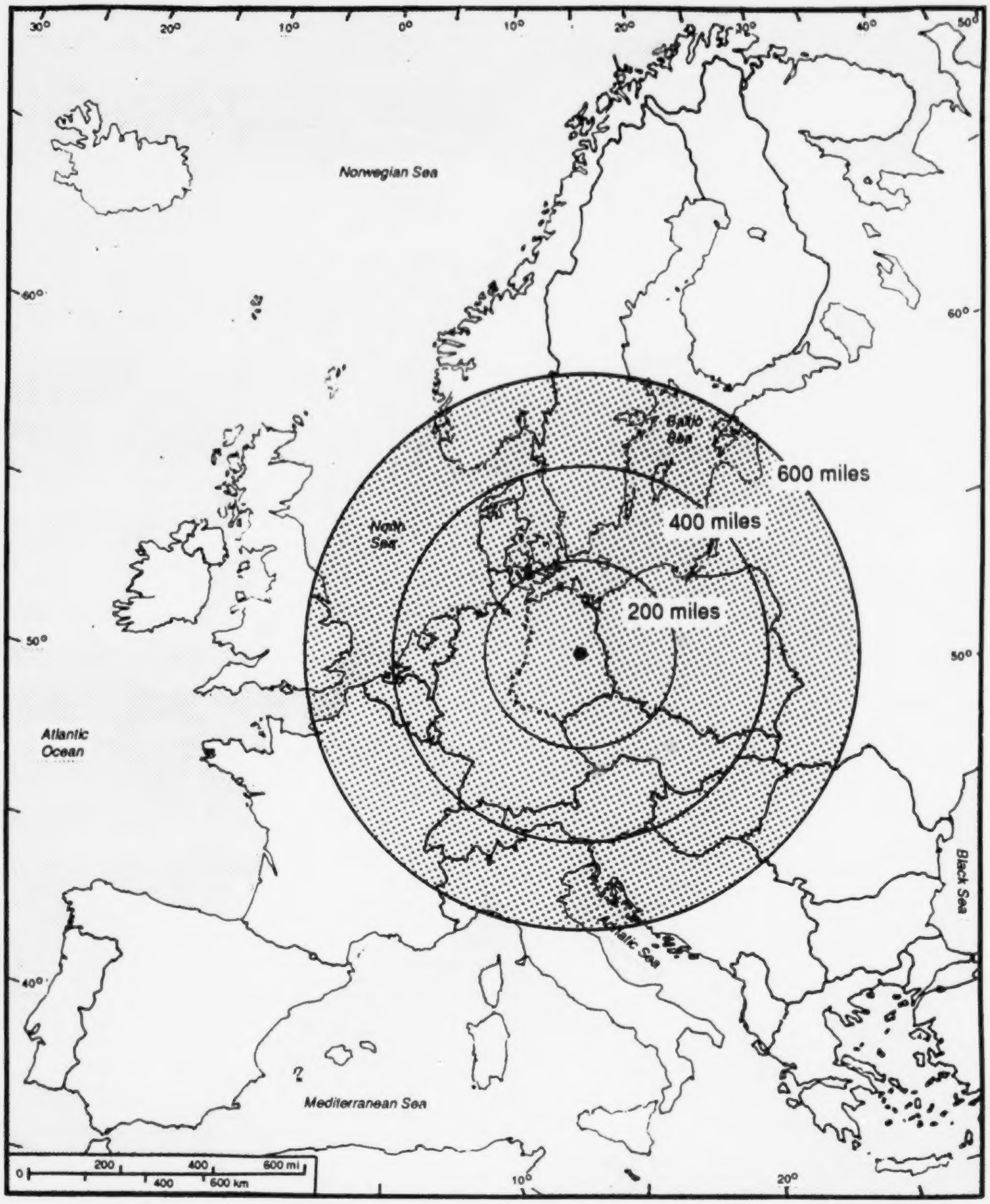
BERLIN CENTERED

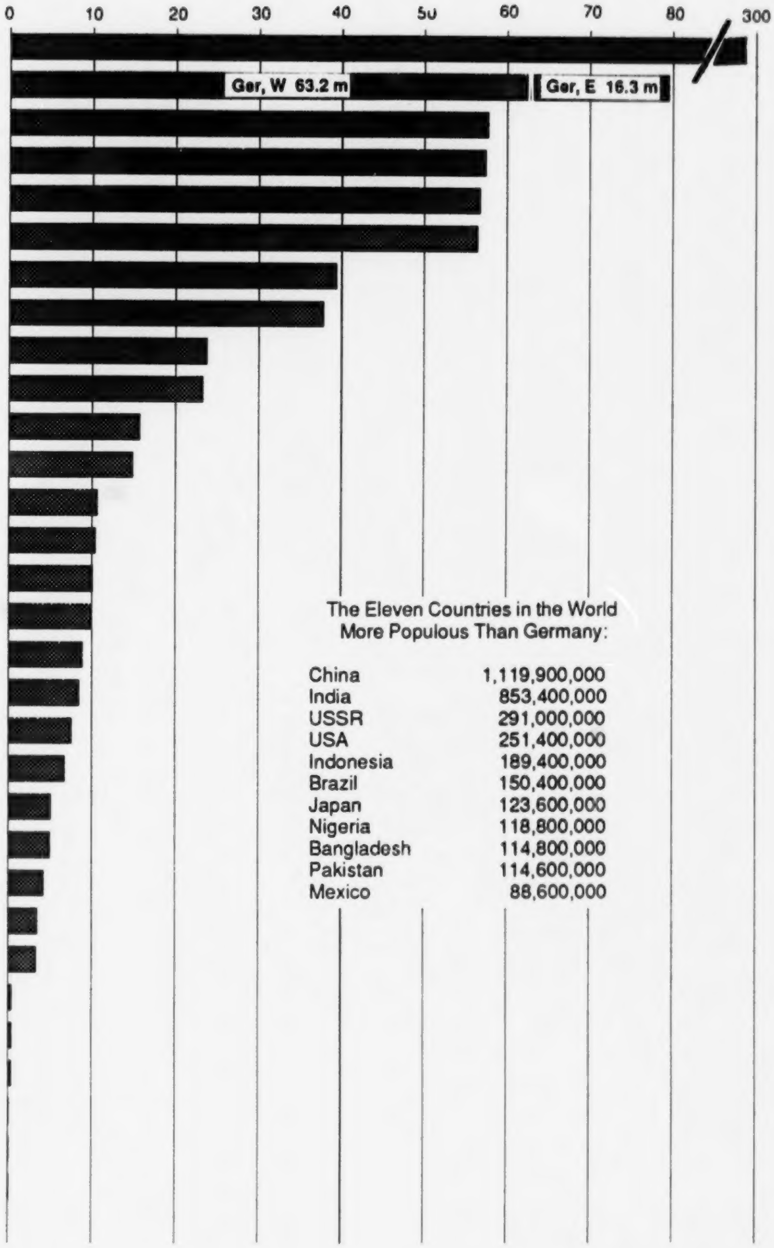

30°
20°
10°
0°
10°
20°
30°
40°
50°
60°
60°
50°
50°
40°
10°
20°
Norwegian Sea
Baltic Sea
North Sea
600 miles
400 miles
200 miles
Atlantic Ocean
Black Sea
Adriatic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
0
200
400
600 mi
400
600 km

WORLD EAGLE map based on one in EUROPE TODAY 1990
Revised Edition published by WORLD EAGLE, Inc.

THE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE RANKED BY POPULATION

-- Estimates for Mid-1990 --

Rank	Country	Population
1	USSR	291,000,000
2	GERMANY	79,500,000
3	ITALY	57,700,000
4	U.K.	57,400,000
5	TURKEY	56,700,000
6	FRANCE	56,400,000
7	SPAIN	39,400,000
8	POLAND	37,800,000
9	YUGO	23,800,000
10	ROMANIA	23,300,000
11	CZECH	15,700,000
12	NETH	14,900,000
13	HUNGARY	10,600,000
14	PORTUGAL	10,400,000
15	GREECE	10,100,000
16	BELGIUM	9,900,000
17	BULGARIA	8,900,000
18	SWEDEN	8,500,000
19	AUSTRIA	7,600,000
20	SWTZ	6,700,000
21	DENMARK	5,100,000
22	FINLAND	5,000,000
23	NORWAY	4,200,000
24	IRELAND	3,500,000
25	ALBANIA	3,300,000
26	LUX	400,000
27	MALTA	400,000
28	ICELAND	300,000
29	ANDORRA	56,000
30	LIECH	30,000
31	MONACO	29,000
32	SAN MARINO	23,000



The Eleven Countries in the World
More Populous Than Germany:

China	1,119,900,000
India	853,400,000
USSR	291,000,000
USA	251,400,000
Indonesia	189,400,000
Brazil	150,400,000
Japan	123,600,000
Nigeria	118,800,000
Bangladesh	114,800,000
Pakistan	114,600,000
Mexico	88,600,000

WORLD EAGLE chart based on one printed in EUROPE TODAY 1990 Revised Edition. Population figures for countries except the five cited in next sentence are from Population Reference Bureau, Inc., 1990 World Population Data Sheet. Population figures for Andorra, Liechtenstein, Monaco, San Marino, Vatican are from 1990 The World Almanac and Book of Facts.

CSCE ECONOMIC REPORT FROM BONN

The following is reprinted from the Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service, CRS Review, May-June 1990. P.21.

The first meeting to discuss economic cooperation among the 35 member nations of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) was held March 19 to April 11, 1990, in Bonn. The result was an important, perhaps historic, document. The overarching agreement accepted the principles of marketization and democratization that underlay the shared aspirations for attaining prosperity and freedom. Some would see this as a reaffirmation of the principles of the World War II Western alliance for pluralistic, competitive, and open economic and political systems. In the CSCE agreement the signatory countries stated that they "share the common objectives of sustainable growth, a rising standard of living, an improved quality of life, expanding employment, efficient use of economic resources and protection of the environment."

Recognizing the transformation under way in the Soviet Union and East Europe, these nations agreed to "Consider that the process of economic reform and structural adjustment, with increased reliance on market forces, will enhance economic performance, improve efficiency of the public sector, respond better to the needs and wishes of consumers, improve the conditions for closer co-operation and contribute to a more open world trading system; . . . in accordance with the internationally recognized rules and involving the acceptance of disciplines as well as benefits."

Specific application of these principles that may be relevant to East-West commercial treaties, agreements, joint ventures and commercial contracts are indicated by the excerpt from the CSCE agreement below. These principles would tend to ensure "national treatment" or reciprocity and nondiscriminatory commercial practices for Western and Eastern partners in commercial ventures:

"They therefore agree to improve business conditions, facilities and practices for each other's firms in their respective markets, based on freedom of establishment. They agree to permit and encourage direct contacts between businessmen at all levels of commerce and stages of industry and end-users. To that end they will, in accordance with their relevant commitments undertaken in the CSCE process, facilitate the prompt entry, stay and free movement of businessmen in their territory; the participating States will facilitate, on a non-discriminatory basis, the establishment and operation of business offices and firms in their territory, including the renting and purchasing of commercial premises and housing, the acquisition of equipment and transport facilities, access to telecommunications, utilities and social services, the carrying out of audits as well as the unhindered recruitment of local staff required by firms. They encourage direct contacts between representatives of commercial and business organizations and economic institutions. The participating States stress that expeditious processing/treatment of goods and persons at international borders stimulates international trade and they will therefore make their borders more open for that purpose. They also stress the importance of trade facilitation and electronic data interchange for their trade relations."

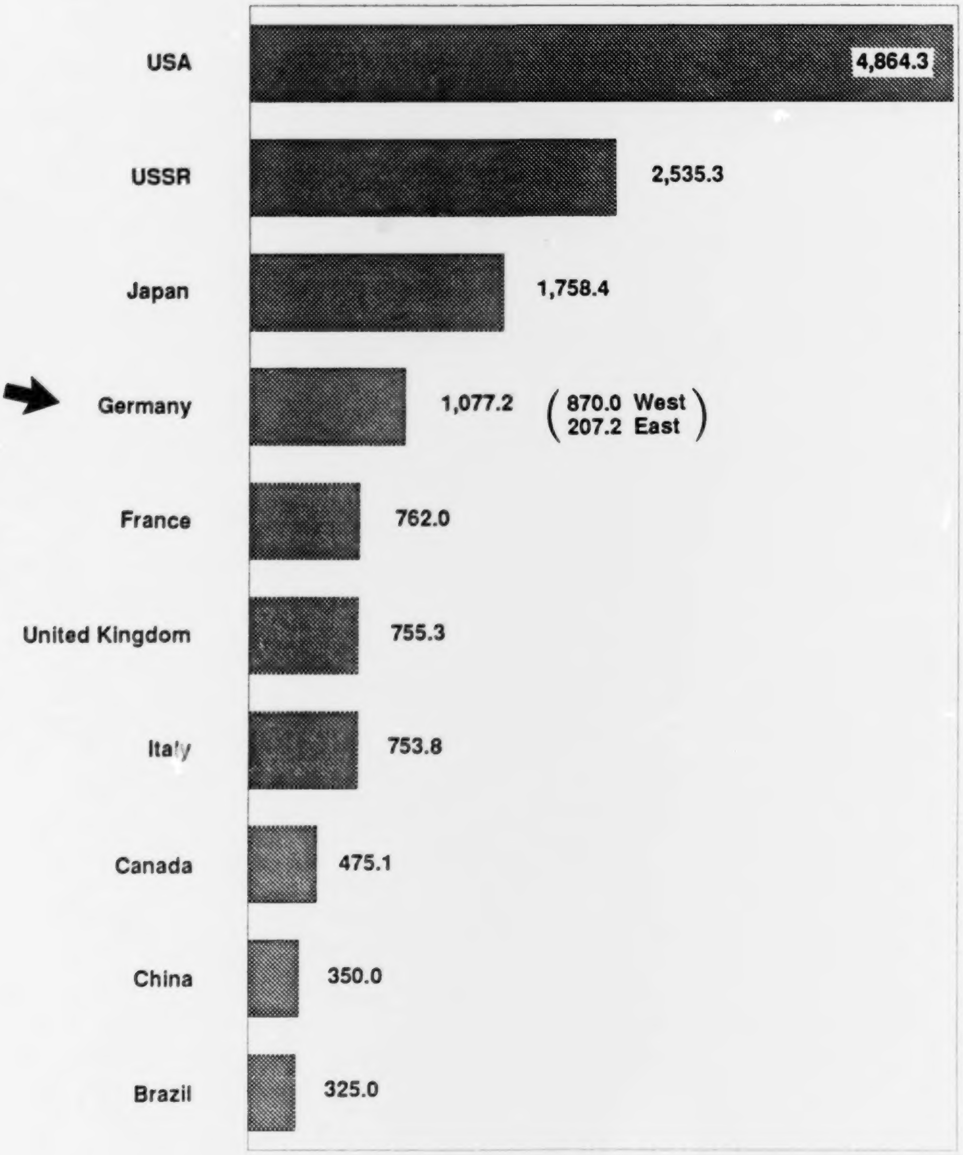
These detailed commercial guidelines adopted at the CSCE meeting were encouraged by the active participation of the business community, the International Chamber of Commerce, the European Community, and the Economic Commission for Europe. In effect, they replicate Western commercial conditions for operating in the Eastern markets.

The CSCE agreement is not a binding treaty, but CSCE participants hope and expect that this economic process (in Basket II of the CSCE accords), which was so definitively articulated in the Bonn Communique, will be at least as successful in encouraging open commerce as the human rights and rule-of-law principles developed at Vienna and earlier in the Basket III process have been in promoting respect for human rights and the rule of law.

John P. Hardt,
CRS associate director for research coordination
(member of the U.S. delegation
to the CSCE Bonn Conference)

TOGETHER, THE TWO GERMANYS IN 1988 RANKED 4TH IN THE WORLD'S PRODUCTION OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT

-- billions 1988 US $ --



World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Central Intelligence Ageny's Handbook of Economic Statistics, 1989. Pp. 30-31. Table 7.

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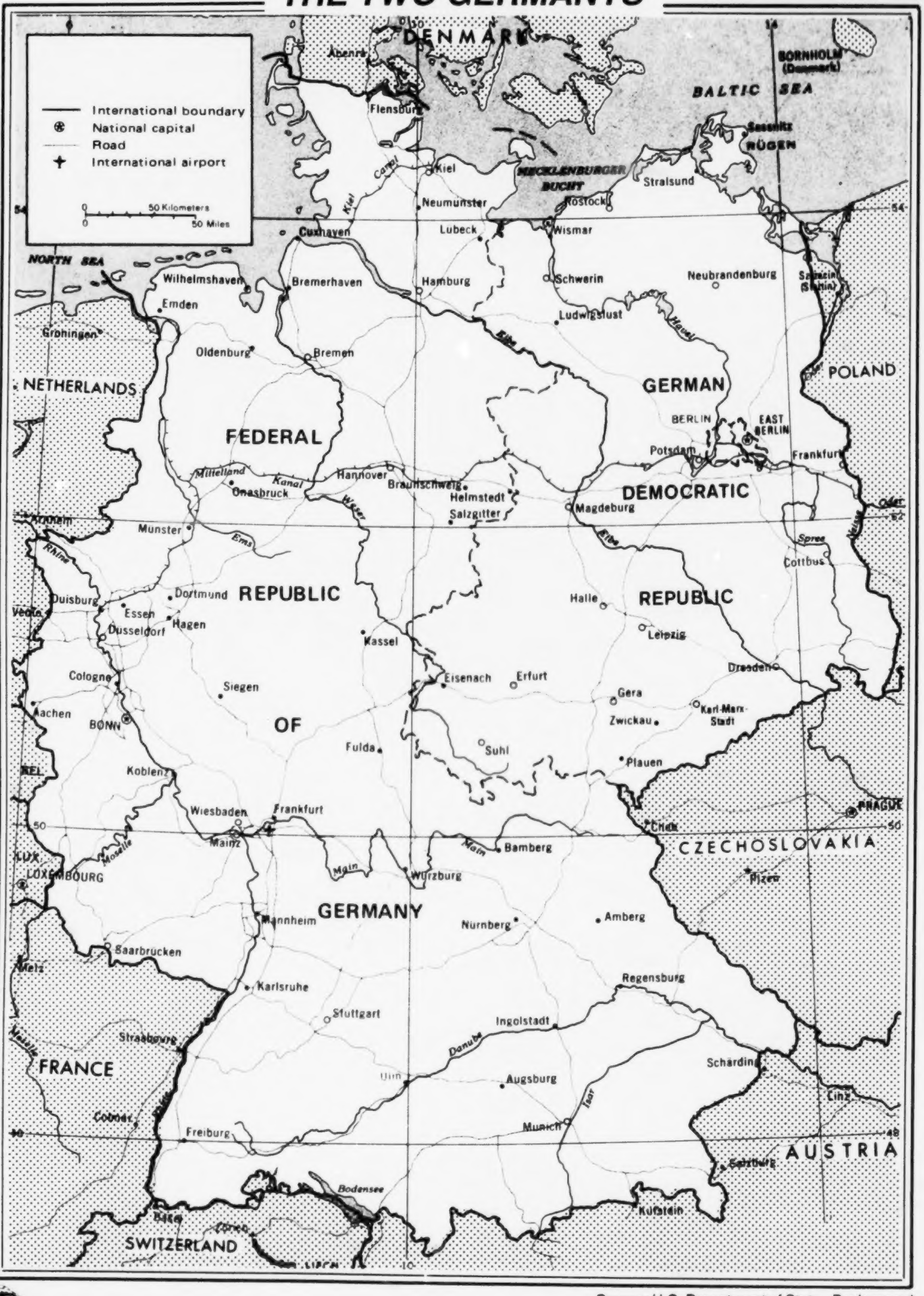
THE TWO GERMANYS


International boundary
National capital
Road
International airport
0 50 Kilometers
0 50 Miles
DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
BORNHOLM (Denmark)
NORTH SEA
MECKLENBURGER BUCHT
RÜGEN
Sassnitz
Abenra
Flensburg
Kiel
Kiel Canal
Neumunster
Lubeck
Wismar
Rostock
Stralsund
Cuxhaven
Wilhelmshaven
Bremerhaven
Hamburg
Schwerin
Neubrandenburg
Szczecin (Stettin)
Emden
Groningen
Ludwigslust
Oldenburg
Bremen
Elbe
Havel
NETHERLANDS
POLAND
FEDERAL
REPUBLIC
OF
GERMANY
GERMAN
DEMOCRATIC
REPUBLIC
BERLIN
EAST BERLIN
Potsdam
Frankfurt
Oder
Mittelland Kanal
Hannover
Braunschweig
Helmstedt
Salzgitter
Osnabruck
Magdeburg
Weser
Munster
Ems
Spree
Neisse
Cottbus
Rhine
Duisburg
Dortmund
Essen
Hagen
Dusseldorf
Halle
Leipzig
Kassel
Dresden
Cologne
Aachen
BONN
Siegen
Eisenach
Erfurt
Gera
Karl-Marx-Stadt
Zwickau
Fulda
Suhl
Plauen
Koblenz
Wiesbaden
Frankfurt
Mainz
Main
Bamberg
Cheb
PRAGUE
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Plzen
Moselle
LUX.
LUXEMBOURG
Wurzburg
Mannheim
Nurnberg
Amberg
Saarbrucken
Metz
Karlsruhe
Regensburg
Stuttgart
Ingolstadt
Strasbourg
FRANCE
Danube
Ulm
Augsburg
Schärding
Linz
Isar
Colmar
Munich
Freiburg
AUSTRIA
Salzburg
Bodensee
Kufstein
Basel
SWITZERLAND
54
52
50
48
10
14

Source: U.S. Department of State. Background Notes, May 1989.

ASPECTS OF GERMANY

GERMANY: 136,645 sq. miles
W. Germany 95,999 sq.miles including 184 sq. miles in W. Berlin
E. Germany 40,646 sq. miles

Population Density Per Square Mile

Albania	288
Andorra	302
Austria	233
Belgium	840
Bulgaria	203
Czechoslovakia	317
Denmark	305
Finland	38
France	252
Germany	
Germany, East	400
Germany, West	626
Greece	196
Hungary	293
Iceland	6
Ireland	137
Italy	493
Liechtenstein	483
Luxembourg	369
Malta	2,934
Monaco	28,072
Netherlands	931
Norway	33
Poland	317
Portugal	281
Romania	252
San Marino	958
Spain	204
Sweden	48
Switzerland	406
Turkey	183
United Kingdom	601
U.S.	62
USSR	33
Yugoslavia	240

Not Including the USSR or Turkey, There Are 501,000,000 Europeans

Of every 100:

16 are Germans
11 are Britons
11 are Italians
11 are French

8 are Poles
8 are Spaniards
5 are Romanians
5 are Yugoslavs

3 are Czechoslovaks
3 are Dutch
2 are Austrians
2 are Belgians

2 are Bulgarians
2 are Greeks
2 are Hungarians
2 are Portuguese
2 are Swedes

1 is Danish
1 is Finnish
1 is Norwegian
1 is Swiss

and approximately 1 (actually closer to 2 because of rounding above) would represent Albania, Andorra, Iceland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, San Marino, and the Vatican.

On August 3, leaders of both Germany's urged joint elections two months earlier than had been planned, and the countries agreed to make Berlin their united capital.

---

continued →

ASPECTS OF GERMANY continued

In 1989, West Germany was the world's 5th largest buyer of U.S. Exports, and the World's 4th largest supplier of U.S. Imports

Top Ten Purchasers of U.S. Domestic and Foreign Merchandise Exports, 1989
(f.a.s. value)

1.	Canada	$78.6
2.	Japan	44.6
3.	Mexico	25.0
4.	United Kingdom	20.9
5.	**WEST GERMANY**	**16.9**
6.	South Korea	13.5
7.	France	11.6
8.	Netherlands	11.4
9.	Taiwan	11.3
10.	Belgium-Luxembourg	8.7

Top Ten Suppliers of U.S. General Merchandise Imports, 1989
(customs value)

1.	Japan	$93.6
2	Canada	88.2
3.	Mexico	27.2
4.	**WEST GERMANY**	**24.8**
5.	Taiwan	24.3
6.	South Korea	19.7
7.	United Kingdom	18.2
8.	France	13.0
9.	China	12.0
10.	Italy	11.9

In 1988, the 17 top European Purchasers of U.S. Exports Bought 27.7% of U.S. Total Exports (Domestic and foreign merchandise, f.a.s.) and the 18 top European Suppliers of U.S. Imports supplied 22.7% of U.S. Total Imports (General Imports, customs value)

Major U.S. mineral-dependency that is met by imports from Germany, among others: cadmium, potash, and tungsten.

In 1988 in the Federal Republic of Germany, 4% of the nation's total employed civilian work force was in agriculture, forestry, and fishing; 39.8% was in industry; and 56.2% was in services.

Percent contributions to FRG's GNP in 1987: agriculture 13.5%; industry 24.9%; services 61.6%

In 1988, the Federal Republic of Germany was the 5th largest consumer of world primary energy.

	(Quadrillion (10^{15}) Btu)
U.S.	79.86
USSR	59.13
China	25.67
Japan	16.83
FRG	12.39
Canada	10.42
United Kingdom	9.11
France	8.41
India	7.04
Poland	6.57

In 1988, West Germany was the world's 3rd largest producer of passenger automobiles: Japan 8,200,000 units; USA 6,956,000 units; West Germany 4,309,000.

In a different comparison of passenger automobile production in 1988: European Community 36%; USSR and Eastern Europe 10%; U.S. 21%; Japan 24%; All Others 9%.

continued

ASPECTS OF GERMANY continued

German Imports and From Whom

East Germany: $31.0 billion (f.o.b., 1987): *commodities* - fuels and metals 40%, machinery and transport equipment 29%, chemical products and building materials 9%; *partners* - CEMA countries 65%, non-Communist 33%, other 2%.

West Germany: $228 billion (f.o.b., 1987): *commodities* - manufactures 68.5%, agricultural products 12.0%, fuels 9.7%, raw materials 7.1%; *partners* - EC 52.7% (France 12%, Netherlands 11%, Italy 10%, UK 7%, Belgium-Luxembourg 7%), other West Europe 15%, U.S. 6%, Japan 6%, Eastern Europe 5%, OPEC 3% (1987)

German Industries, plus Exports and To Whom

East Germany

Industries: metal fabrication, chemicals, brown coal, shipbuilding, machine building, food and beverages, textiles, petroleum

Exports: $30.8 billion (f.o.b., 1987); *commodities* - machinery and transport equipment 47%, fuels and metals 16%, consumer goods 16%, chemical products and building materials 13%, semimanufactured goods and processed foodstuffs 8%; *partners* - USSR, Czechoslovakia, Poland, FRG, Hungary, Bulgaria, Switzerland, Romania.

West Germany

Industries: among world's largest producers of iron, steel, coal, cement, chemicals, machinery, ships, vehicles, and machine tools; electonics, food and beverages

Exports: $294 billion (f.o.b., 1987): *commodities* - manufactures 86.6% (including machines and machine tools, chemicals, motor vehicles, iron and steel products), agricultural products 4.9%, raw materials 2.3%, fuels 1.3%; *partners* - EC 52.7% (France 12%, Netherlands 9%, Italy 9%, UK 9%, Belgium-Luxembourg 7%), other West Europe 18%, U.S. 10%, Eastern Europe 4%, OPEC 3% (1987)

For the 167 year period 1820-1986, Germany was the largest source country of immigration into the U.S.

Country	Share of Immigration
Germany	13.3%
Italy	10.0
United Kingdom	9.5
Ireland	8.8
Austria-Hungary	8.1
Canada and Newfoundland	7.9
USSR	6.4
Mexico	5.0
Norway-Sweden	4.0
All Others	27.0

In 1988, the 12 members of the European Community produced 21.8% of the world's Gross National Product. Of that total for the EC, West Germany produced almost 22%.

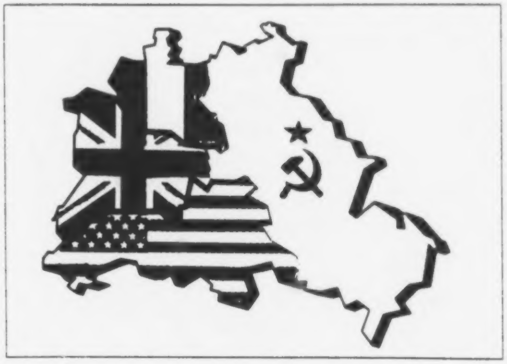
Estimated World GNP in 1988: US$18.6 trillion
Estimated Real Gross National Product in Billion 1988 US $

The European Community	$4,059.7
Belgium	$124.9
France	762.0
Italy	753.8
Netherlands	191.2
Spain	365.2
United Kingdom	755.3
West Germany	870.0
The Other 5 (Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal)	237.3

continued

ASPECTS OF GERMANY continued

Berlin: Four Sectors



Phones, Newspapers, TV's and Radios

Country	Telephones per 100 population[1] 1986	Daily newspaper circulation copies per 1,000 population[2] 1984	Television receivers per 1,000 population[3] 1986	Radio receivers per 1,000 population[4] 1986
United States	76.0[5]	268	813	2,126
East Germany	22.6	550	363[6]	627
West Germany	64.0	350	379[6]	955

[1] As of December 31, except as noted. Comprises public and private telephones installed which can be connected to a central exchange.

[2] Publications containing general news and appearing at least 4 times a week; may range in size from a single sheet to 50 or more pages. Circulation data refer to average circulation per issue or number of printed copies per issue and include copies sold outside the country.

[3] Estimated number of sets in use, except as noted.

[4] Data cover estimated number of receivers in use, except as noted, and apply to all types of receivers for radio broadcasts to the public, including receivers connected to a radio "redistribution system" but excluding television sets.

[5] For 1984. [6] Number of licenses issued.

In Germany, there is a smaller percentage under age 15 than in the U.S., and a slightly higher percentage of those over age 65.

Germany, West	15/15
Germany, East	19/13
U.S.	22/12
Europe	20/13
Albania	35/5
Austria	18/15
Belgium	18/14
Bulgaria	21/12
Czechoslovakia	24/11
Denmark	18/15
Finland	19/13
France	20/14
Greece	20/13
Hungary	21/13
Iceland	25/10
Ireland	28/11
Italy	18/14
Luxembourg	17/13
Malta	24/10
Netherlands	18/13
Norway	19/16
Poland	26/10
Portugal	22/13
Romania	25/9
Spain	22/13
Sweden	18/18
Switzerland	17/15
Turkey	36/4
United Kingdom	19/15
USSR	25/9
Yugoslavia	23/9

Some Comparisons

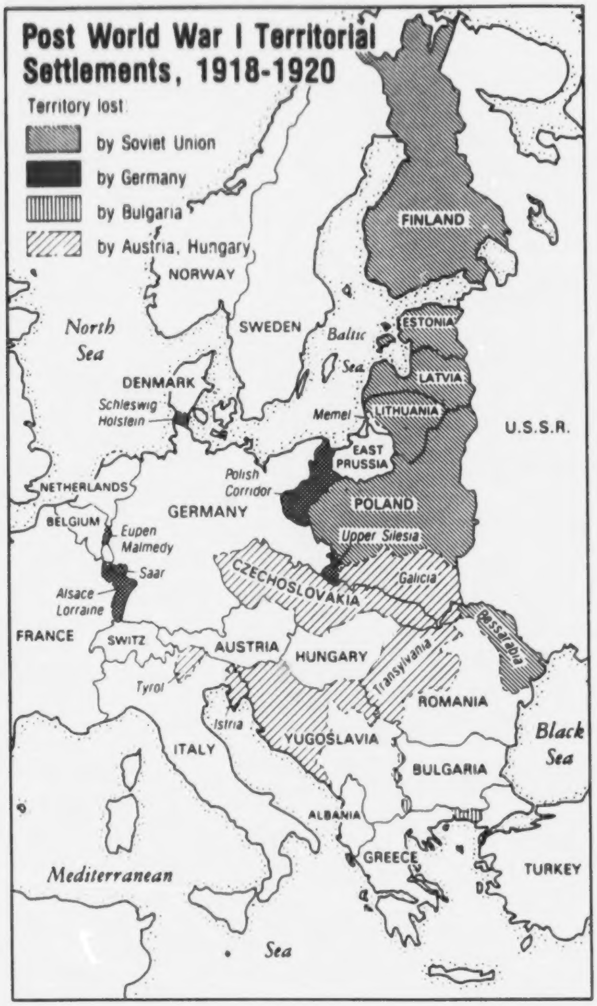
Argentina	34/9	Japan	20/11
China	27/6	Mexico	42/4
Ethiopia	46/4	Nigeria	45/2
India	39/3	Philippines	39/3
Indonesia	38/3	South Africa	45/3
Iran	45/3		

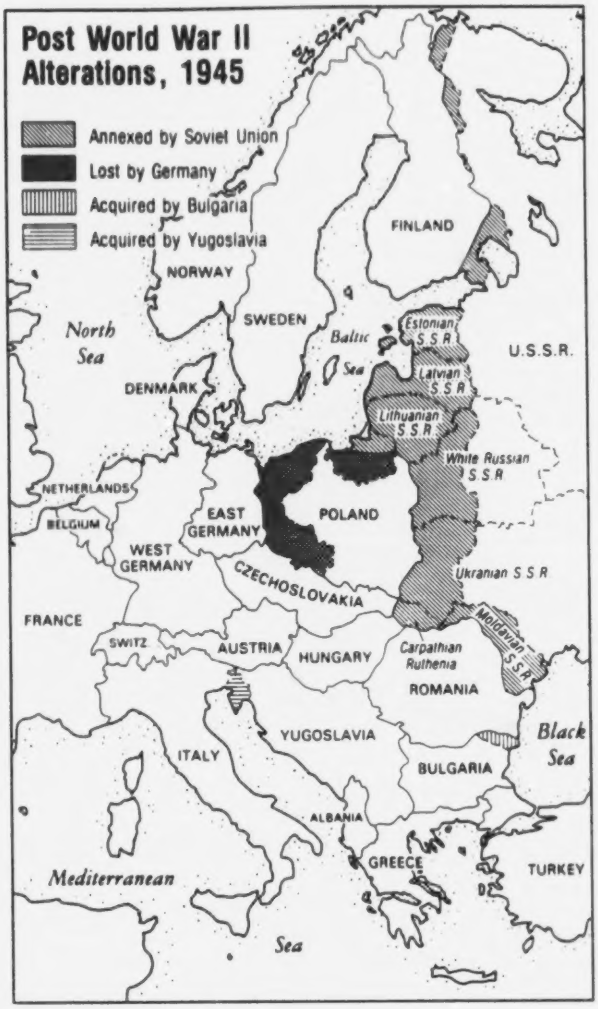
After USSR ($303 billion) and the U.S. ($296.2 billion), the Germanys Were The World's Top Military Spender in 1987: $34.1 billion West Germany plus $14.4 billion East Germany.

The next 16 in 1987 (all in billions $)

France	34.8	Poland	18.0	Canada	8.8
U.K.	31.6	Iraq	NA	Romania	7.6
Japan	24.3	Saudi Arabia	10.5	Spain	6.9
China	20.7	Czechoslovakia	10.3	Bulgaria	6.7
Iran	NA	India	9.6	Netherlands	6.5
Italy	18.4				

TERRITORIAL CHANGES IN EUROPE AFTER WWI AND WWII


Post World War I Territorial Settlements, 1918-1920
Territory lost:
▨ by Soviet Union
■ by Germany
▥ by Bulgaria
▨ by Austria, Hungary
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
North Sea
Baltic Sea
DENMARK
Schleswig Holstein
ESTONIA
LATVIA
LITHUANIA
Memel
EAST PRUSSIA
U.S.S.R.
NETHERLANDS
Polish Corridor
POLAND
BELGIUM
GERMANY
Eupen Malmedy
Saar
Upper Silesia
Alsace Lorraine
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Galicia
FRANCE
SWITZ
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
Transylvania
Bessarabia
Tyrol
ROMANIA
Istria
YUGOSLAVIA
ITALY
Black Sea
BULGARIA
ALBANIA
GREECE
TURKEY
Mediterranean Sea


Post World War II Alterations, 1945
▨ Annexed by Soviet Union
■ Lost by Germany
▥ Acquired by Bulgaria
▤ Acquired by Yugoslavia
FINLAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
North Sea
Baltic Sea
Estonian S.S.R.
Latvian S.S.R.
Lithuanian S.S.R.
U.S.S.R.
DENMARK
White Russian S.S.R.
NETHERLANDS
EAST GERMANY
POLAND
BELGIUM
WEST GERMANY
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
Ukranian S.S.R
FRANCE
SWITZ
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
Carpathian Ruthenia
Moldavian S.S.R.
ROMANIA
YUGOSLAVIA
ITALY
Black Sea
BULGARIA
ALBANIA
GREECE
TURKEY
Mediterranean Sea

Source: The Library of Congress. Congressional Research Service. CRS Review, March-April 1990. P.10.

U.S. TRADE WITH JAPAN

The text and graphics on this page and the next have been excerpted from an article by Leyla Woods in U.S. Department of Commerce's Business America, July 2, 1990. Pp. 17-19.

The U.S. trade deficit with Japan now accounts for over 40 percent of the total U.S. trade deficit. Japan's share of the total deficit has grown since 1987 because the U.S. deficit with Japan has improved much less than the global U.S. deficit: between 1987 and 1989, the total U.S. trade deficit shrank 29 percent while the U.S. deficit with Japan declined only 13 percent. In contrast, the U.S. trade deficit with the East Asian NICs narrowed 29 percent between 1987 and 1989 and the balance with the EC improved from a $21 billion deficit in 1987 to a $1.5 billion surplus in 1989.

Autos—Japan's leading export to the United States—account for about 40 percent of the U.S. deficit with Japan. Expanding auto production by Japanese subsidiaries in the United States has helped to keep U.S. car imports stable since 1986, but has contributed to increasing imports of Japanese auto parts and related equipment.

Aggregate Trade Trends

Japan, the second largest U.S. trade partner after Canada, accounts for only 17 percent of total U.S. trade turnover (exports and imports), but 45 percent of the total U.S. trade deficit. U.S. exports to Japan have doubled since 1980, while Japanese exports to the United States have tripled. The U.S. trade deficit with Japan has quintupled, rising from $10 billion in 1980 to $49 billion in 1989.

Most of the growth in U.S. exports occurred after 1985. With exchange rates at about 235 yen to the dollar and faster nominal economic growth in the United States than in Japan during 1980-85, U.S. exports stagnated while U.S. imports from Japan more than doubled. U.S. exports expanded 34 percent in 1988 and a further 18 percent in 1989, but U.S. imports have continued to grow. With 1989 U.S. imports at $94 billion and U.S. exports at $45 billion, the United States now imports $2.00 worth of Japanese goods for every $1.00 of U.S. exports to Japan, down from a 3:1 ratio of imports to exports during 1985-87.

U.S.-Japan trade bulks larger for Japan than for the United States. The United States is Japan's largest trade partner, with 34 percent of Japan's total exports, 23 percent of Japan's total imports, and 66 percent of Japan's total trade surplus. The United States accounts for about as much of Japan's exports, imports, and trade surplus as the EC and the East Asian NICs together. Bilateral trade is also more important to Japan on the macroeconomic level: exports to the United States account for 3 percent of Japan's GNP while U.S. exports to Japan account for less than 1 percent of U.S. GNP.

Commodity Trade

Manufactures predominate in U.S.-Japan trade, composing about 60 percent of U.S. exports and virtually 100 percent of U.S. imports from resource-poor Japan. However, the share of manufactures in U.S. exports to Japan is low compared to the manufactures share of U.S. exports to other countries and globally. For example, manufactures account for 80 percent of global U.S. exports, 80 percent of U.S. exports to the EC, and 75 percent of U.S. exports to the East Asian NICs.

Aircraft and associated equipment have overtaken corn as the leading U.S. export to Japan (see table), and U.S. aircraft exports to Japan account for 8-12 percent of all U.S. aircraft sales abroad....

Japan purchases about 10 percent of total U.S. high-tech exports, which include aircraft and products in several of the other leading commodity groups in U.S. manufactures exports....

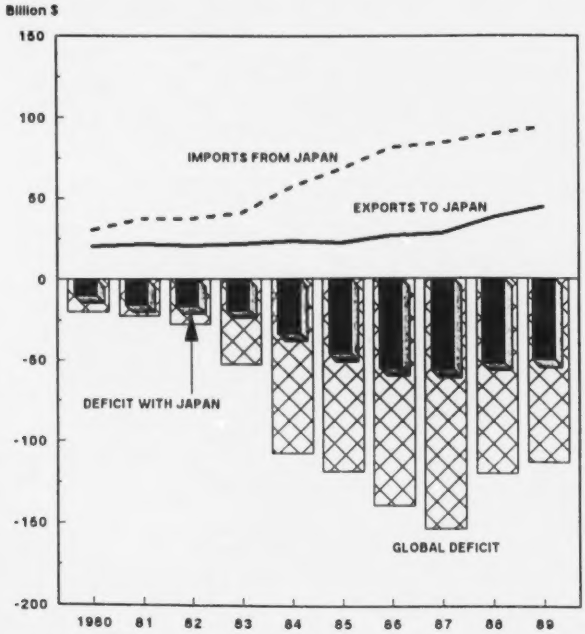
Japan is the leading foreign purchaser of U.S. agricultural products, absorbing 20 percent of total U.S. agricultural exports. Corn, fish, and beef are the leading U.S. agricultural exports to Japan. Soybeans are also an important U.S. non-manufacture export....

.... Most forecasters predict that the U.S. and Japanese total trade imbalances—and the U.S.-Japan bilateral imbalance—will remain at about the same levels in 1990 as in 1989. ◆

continued →

U.S. TRADE WITH JAPAN continued

U.S. Trade Deficit With Japan Fails to Improve at Same Pace as Global U.S. Trade Deficit



Top Ten U.S. Exports to Japan in 1989

(By 3-Digit SITC Rev. 3 Group)

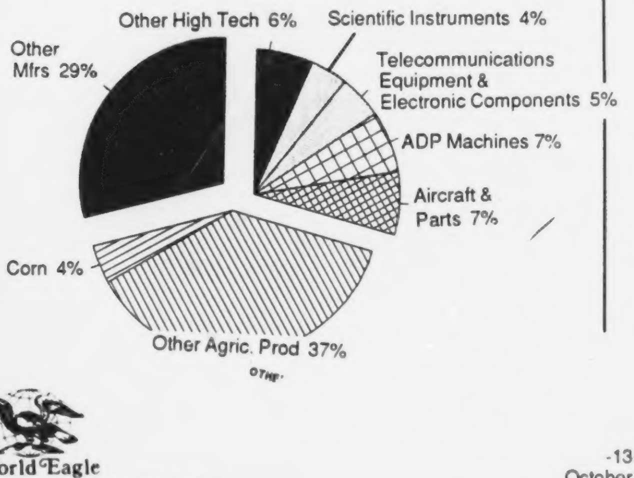
		(Billion $)
1.	Aircraft and parts	2.0
2.	ADP machines	1.9
3.	Rough wood	1.7
4.	Corn	1.6
5.	ADP parts	1.3
6.	Cathode valves, tubes, etc. (incl. TV tubes)	1.2
7.	Scientific instruments	1.2
8.	Fish, fresh or frozen	1.1
9.	Art works and antiques	1.1
10.	Aluminum	1.1

Top Ten U.S. Imports From Japan in 1989

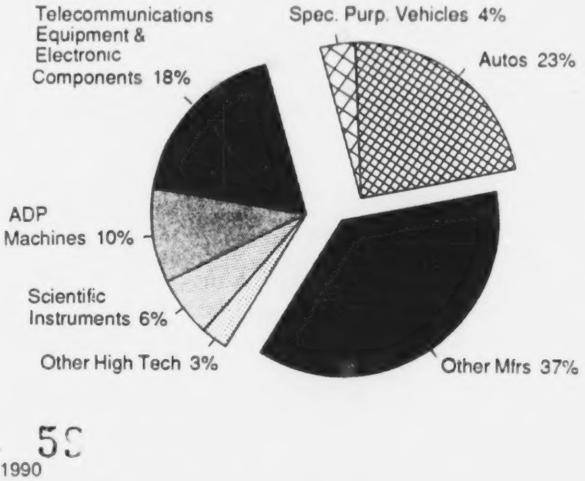
(By 3-Digit SITC Rev. 3 Group)

		(Billion $)
1.	Autos	20.3
2.	ADP machines	5.5
3.	Telecom. equip. and parts	5.3
4.	Auto parts	5.2
5.	Cathode valves, tubes, etc. (incl. TV tubes)	4.4
6.	ADP parts	3.9
7.	Audio and video recorders	3.3
8.	Internal combustion engines & parts	3.2
9.	Special purpose vehicles	2.8
10.	Electrical machinery	2.3

Manufactures Account for Only 60 Percent of U.S. Exports to Japan



Autos and High-Tech Products Dominate U.S. Imports From Japan



World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

THE STATE DEPARTMENT ON U.S. -- JAPAN RELATIONS

The following is reprinted in full from an issue of Gist dated June 1990, not received until August 2, 1990. The State Department describes Gist as "a quick reference aid on US foreign policy".

Background

Japan is the most important US ally in East Asia, our second largest trading partner, a major creditor, and the foremost economic and technological competitor of the United States. The US-Japan security relationship is the cornerstone of Japan's foreign policy and the US position in Asia. The two countries share largely compatible global and regional interests and agree on the need to create a more open international trading system. The US president and Japan's prime minister, the US secretary of state and Japan's foreign minister, and subcabinet officials meet frequently to develop a growing global partnership.

Security Relations

The 1960 Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security underpins overall US-Japan relations and continues to be a major factor in maintaining peace and stability in East Asia. Japan hosts 50,000 US troops and is home for the ships of the US 7th Fleet, which includes the only aircraft carrier battle group that is forward deployed overseas. Japan contributes more that $2.5 billion annually (almost 40% of total costs) to support US forces in Japan which, in addition to depending Japan, serve US regional interests. Within the scope of Japan's constitution and government policy, which preclude an offensive military force, Japan defends its territory and sealanes to 1,000 nautical miles, providing a credible deterrent and allowing greater flexibility in deploying US forces throughout Asia. Japan's defense budget, if calculated on a NATO formula which includes veteran's costs, is the third largest in the world after those of the United States and the Soviet Union.

Economic Relations

The US and Japanese economies are highly interdependent, with substantial trade, investment, and financial flows. US merchandise exports to Japan increased from $23 billion in 1985 to $45 billion in 1989, making Japan the second largest market and the largest agricultural customer of the United States. Japan's largest export market is the United States, with Japanese exports of $94 billion in 1989.

The US merchandise trade deficit with Japan dropped to $49 billion in 1989, continuing the improvements made since 1987. Japan's current account surplus declined by 29% from $80 billion in 1988 to $57 billion in 1989.

The United States is the largest foreign investor in Japan; in 1988, US direct investment there was almost $17 billion. In 1988, Japan's cumulative direct investment in the United States totaled $53 billion, making Japan the second largest investor here. In addition, $86 billion of Japan's $131 billion of net overseas capital flows came to the United States, helping to meet US financial needs.

The United States and Japan have successfully reached agreements on the three sectors - satellites, supercomputers, and wood products - identified for trade liberalization under the Super 301 provision of the 1988 Trade Act. The two countries also have embarked on an innovative program, called the Structural Impediments Initiative (SII), to address domestic obstacles to international economic adjustment.

Relations With Other Countries

Japan emphasizes relations with its Asian neighbors, although it is taking a growing interest in other regions as it assumes a greater international role commensurate with its economic strength. Japan has promoted the emergence of democratic governments around the world by sending election observers to Namibia and Nicaragua; offering economic assistance to Eastern Europe, Central America, and the Philippines; condemning attempts to thwart the democratic process in Panama; and participating in the international effort to resolve the Cambodia conflict.

Recently, Japan also has grown more active in international peacekeeping operations, providing people and/or funds to the Multinational Force and Observers (MFO) in the Sinai and to UN peacekeeping missions in Central America and Afghanistan. Japan's policy of encouraging reform in China without compromising on human rights has been consistent with US policy. Japan maintains economic, though no diplomatic, relations with Taiwan and has important long-term economic interests in Southeast Asia and the Persian Gulf.

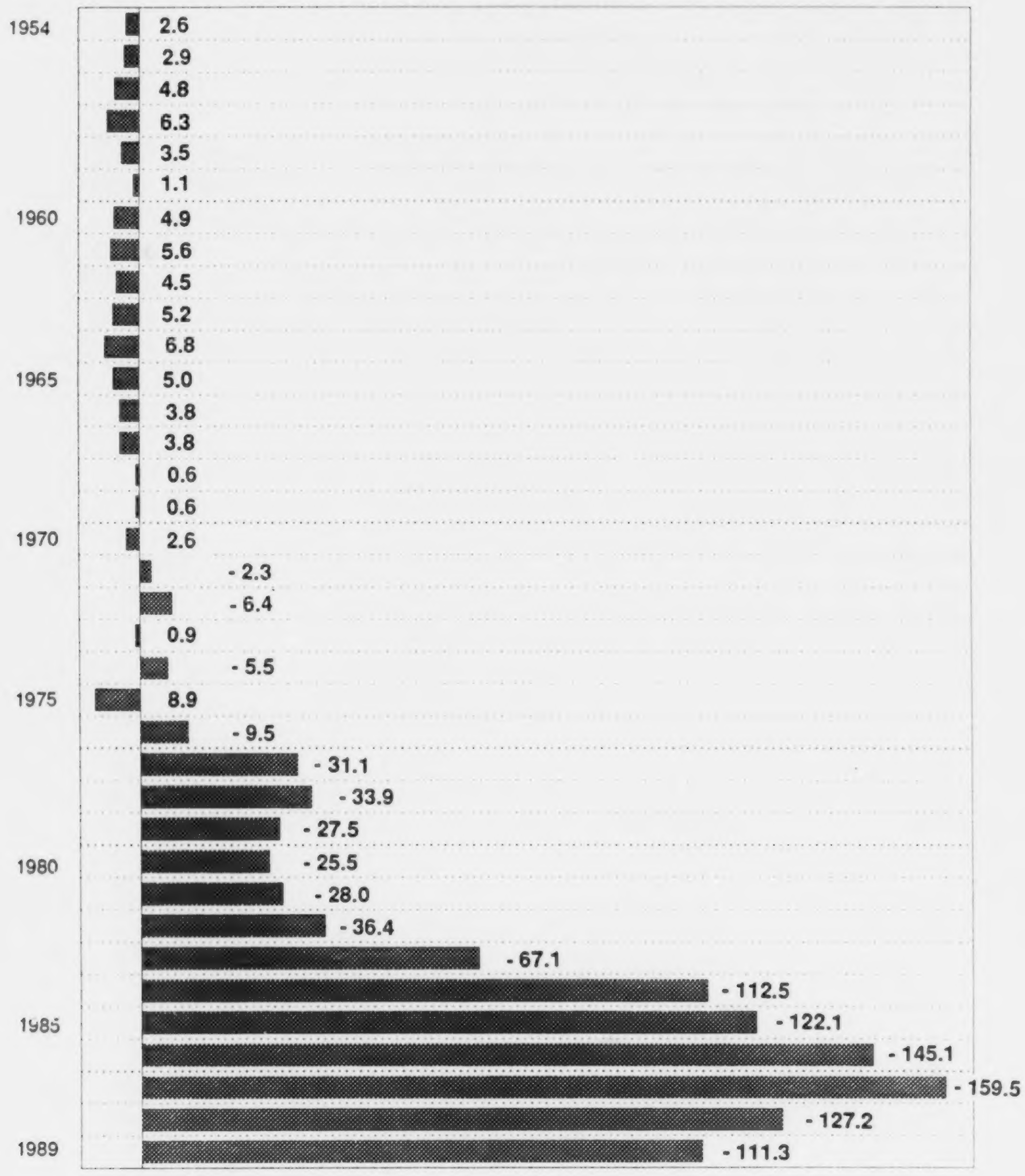
Foreign Assistance

Aid cooperation is an important element of the US-Japan "global partnership." Subcabinet level consultations are held regularly to coordinate the two foreign assistance programs. The United States supports Japan's efforts to open its markets to the products of developing countries.

In 1989, Japan surpassed the United States as the world's largest bilateral aid donor, disbursing $9 billion. Japan is the largest source of development assistance in Asia and is a major donor to areas of particular importance to the United States, including Eastern Europe, the Philippines, the Middle East, Latin America, and the Caribbean. In a precedent-setting initiative, Japan announced in January 1990 a $2 billion financial support package for Eastern Europe. Last year, Japan, in cooperation with the United States, was instrumental in launching the Philippines Multilateral Assistance Initiative (MAI), to which it pledged $1 billion. Japan supports the Brady plan, the US policy on developing countries' foreign debt reduction, including more than $2 billion for Mexico. ◆

U.S. MERCHANDISE BALANCE OF TRADE, YEARS 1954-1989

-- in billions of current dollars --



World Eagle graph. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. For years 1954-1988: Business Conditions Digest, September 1989. Table 622, Historical Data, p. 104. For year 1989: Survey of Current Business, January 1990. Table 4.3. P. 17.

U.S. TRADE WITH NONMARKET ECONOMY COUNTRIES IS SMALL SHARE OF U.S. WORLD TRADE

U.S. Trade with the World and with the Nonmarket Economy Countries,[1] 1987, 1988, 1989, October-December 1988, and October-December 1989

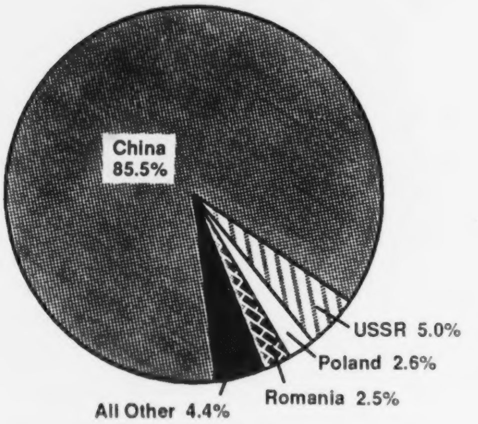
Item	*1987*	*1988*	*1989*	*October-December 1988*	*October-December 1989*
	Value (million dollars)				
U.S. world trade:					
Exports	243,859	310,346	349,433	81,885	89,277
Imports	402,066	437,140	468,012	114,710	120,520
Balance	-158,207	-126,794	-118,579	-32,825	-31,243
Trade turnover (exports plus imports)	645,925	747,487	817,445	196,595	209,797
U.S. trade with NMEs:					
Exports	5,687	8,668	11,072	2,339	2,580
Imports	8,153	10,562	13,871	2,929	3,837
Balance	-2,466	-1,894	-2,799	-590	-1,257
Trade turnover (exports plus imports)	13,840	19,230	24,944	5,268	6,417
	Percent of total				
Share of total U.S. trade accounted for by trade with NMEs:					
Exports	2.33	2.79	3.17	2.86	2.89
Imports	2.03	2.42	2.96	2.55	3.18

[1] Afghanistan, Albania, Bulgaria, Cambodia, China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Laos, Mongolia, North Korea, Poland, Romania, the U.S.S.R. (including Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania), and Vietnam.

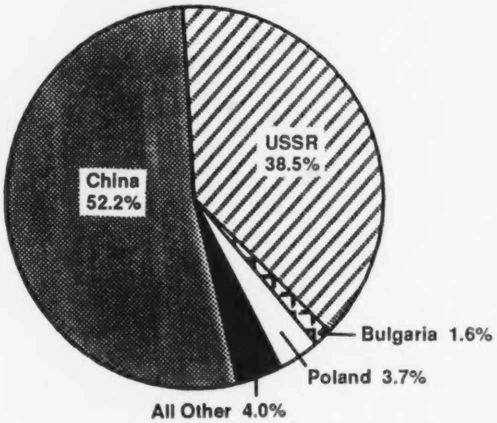
Note.—Import figures in this and all other tables in this report are Census-based imports for consumption at customs value. Exports are domestic exports only, including Defense Department military assistance shipments, and are valued on an f.a.s. basis. Values presented for periods before 1989 in this and other tables in this report may not agree exactly with values previously published. Because data for periods before January 1, 1989, were compiled under the old systems of classification and then converted to the new HS-based system, the values shown represent estimates derived from the old data allocated as if the new classification system had been in effect during those periods.

Source: Compiled from official statistics of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

1989 U.S. Imports



1989 U.S. Exports

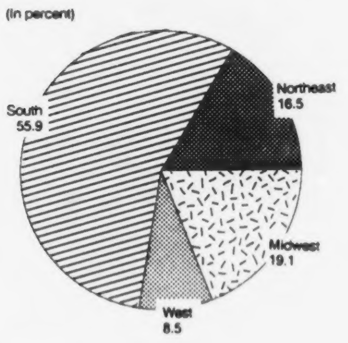


Source: U.S. International Trade Commission Quarterly Report. Trade Between the United States and the Nonmarket Economy Countries During 1989. June 1990. Pp. 5,7,& 9.

ASPECTS OF THE BLACK POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Figure 1

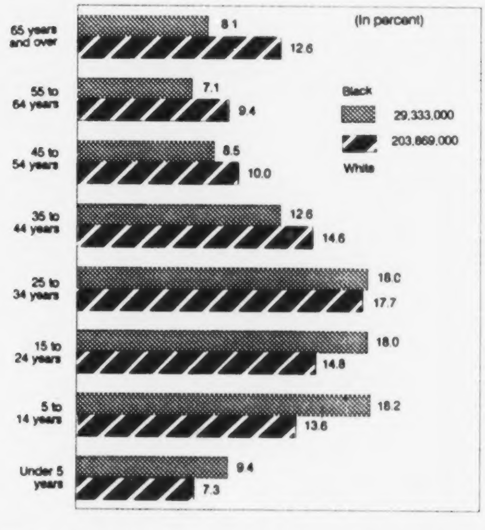
Black Population, by Region: 1988



The 1980's was the first period in this century to show an increase in the proportion of Blacks living in the South. In March 1988, 56 percent of all Blacks lived in the South, up from 52 percent in 1980. Forty-four percent of all Blacks lived in the North and West (17 percent in the Northeast, 19 percent in the Midwest, and 8 percent in the West) in 1988.

Figure 3

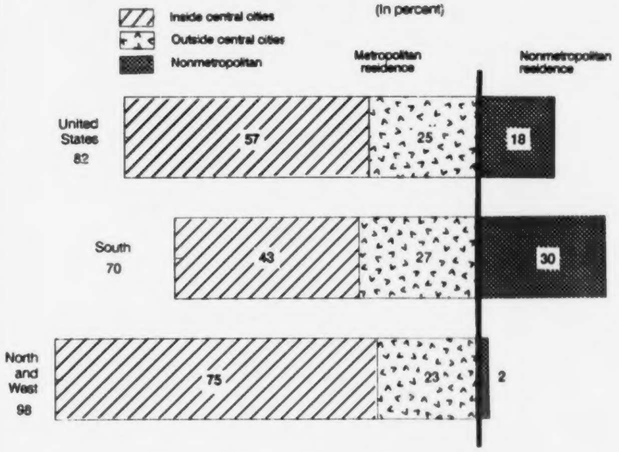
U.S. Population, by Age and Race: 1988



The Black population has a higher proportion under 18 years old and a lower proportion 65 years old and over than does the White population . In 1988, 33 percent of Blacks were under 18 years of age, compared with 25 percent of Whites. Among the population 65 years old and over, the proportions were 8 and 13 percent, respectively. As of March 1988, the median age for Blacks was 27.3 years, up from 24.8 years in 1980.

Figure 2

Black Population, by Region and Metropolitan/Nonmetropolitan Residence: 1988



Eighty-two percent of all Blacks lived in metropolitan areas in 1988. Blacks living in metropolitan areas tended to be heavily concentrated in the central cities.

In 1988, 98 percent of all Blacks in the North and West lived in metropolitan areas in contrast to only 70 percent in the South.

Figure 4

Ratio of Unmarried Men to Unmarried Women, by Selected Ages: 1988

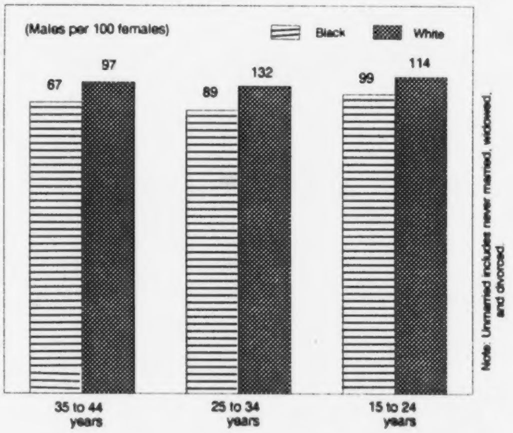


Figure 4 shows the ratio of unmarried men to unmarried women for Blacks and Whites 15 to 44 years old in 1988. The number of unmarried Black men and unmarried Black women reached parity (99 males per 100 females) for only the 15-24 age group. For the 25-34 age group, there were 89 unmarried Black men for every 100 unmarried Black women; the number drops even further to 67 for the 35-44 age group. The comparable ratios were larger for the White population.

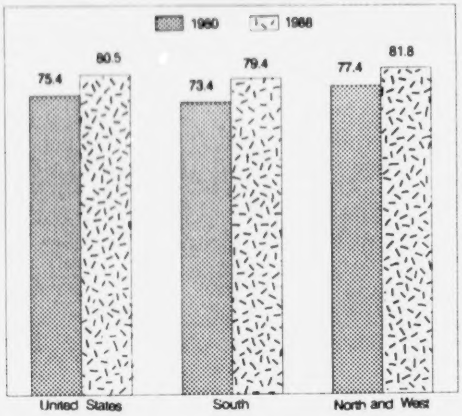
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. The Black Population in the United States: A Chartbook. 1990. Pp. 2 & 3.

continued →

BLACK POPULATION IN THE U.S. continued

Figure 5

High School Graduation Rates for Blacks 25 to 34 Years Old, by Region: 1980 and 1988

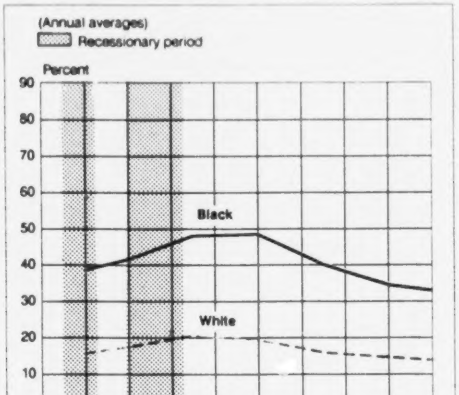


The progress that Black young adults have made in attaining a high school diploma continues to be impressive in the 1980's. In 1980, 75 percent of Blacks 24 to 34 years old had completed at least 4 years of high school; by 1988, this proportion had increased to 80 percent.

Historically, Blacks in the North and West have had higher educational attainment levels than Blacks living in the South. In 1988, the proportion of Black young adults who completed high school in the South (79 percent) was not significantly different from that in the North and West (82 percent).

Figure 7

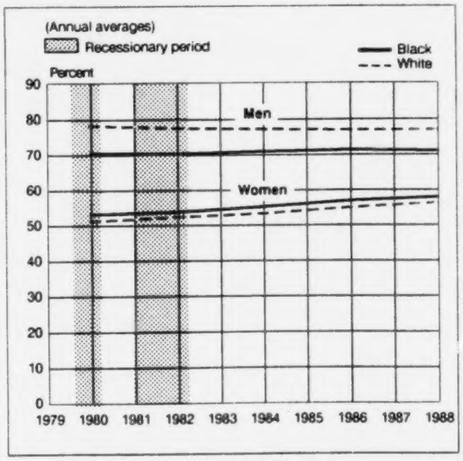
Unemployment Rates for Teenagers, by Race: 1980 to 1988



The unemployment rate for Black teenagers (16 to 19 years) is of considerable concern since it generally has been the highest of all components of the Black and White populations. In the post-recession period of 1983, Black teen unemployment reached 48.5 percent -- much higher than that for White teenagers (19.3 percent). By 1988, the rate for Black teenagers had declined to 32.4 percent -- but still 2-1/2 times that for White teenagers (13.1 percent).

Figure 6

Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Race: 1980 to 1988

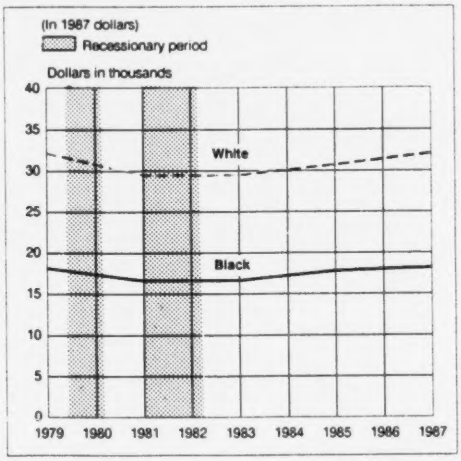


The 1988 civilian labor force participation rate for Black women (58 percent) was slightly higher than the 56 percent for White women. In spite of the 1980 and 1981-82 recessions, civilian labor force participation rates for both Black and White women increased during the 1980-88 period.

The labor force participation rate for Black men in 1988 was not significantly different from the 1980 rate

Figure 8

Median Family Income, by Race of Householder: 1979 to 1987



The Black median family income was $18,100 in 1987, 56 percent of that for White families ($32,270). After adjusting for inflation, the median family income for both Black and White families in 1987 was not significantly different from their 1979 levels ($18,220 and $32,090, respectively). However, income levels were not stagnant during the entire period, but fluctuated in line with the economic conditions of the Nation.

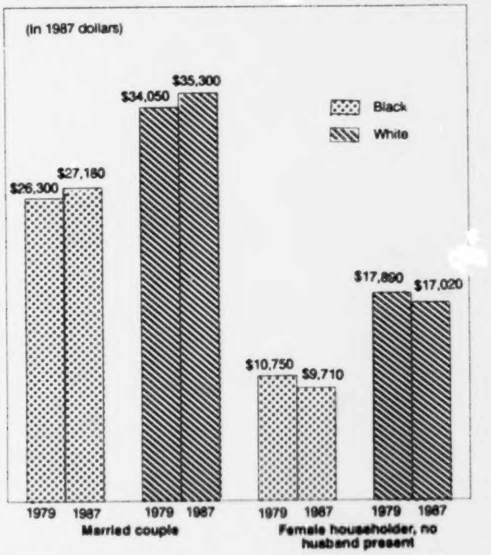
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. The Black Population in the United States: A Chartbook. 1990. Pp. 4 & 5.

continued →

BLACK POPULATION IN THE U.S. continued

Figure 9

Median Family Income, by Type of Family and Race of Householder: 1979 and 1987

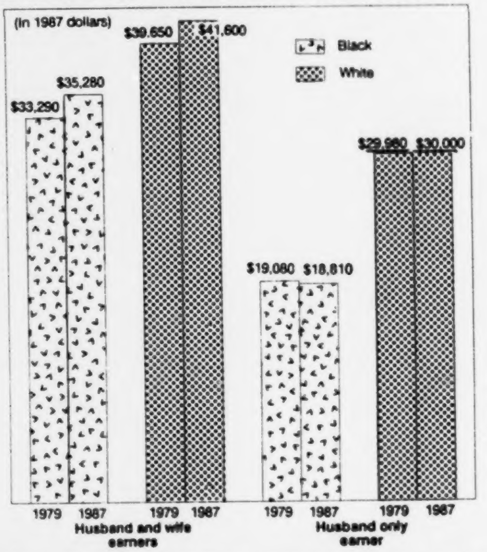


The real median money income of Black, married-couple families in 1979 ($26,300) was not statistically different from that in 1987 ($27,180). In 1987, the median income of Black, married-couple families was about 77 percent of White, married-couple families.

In 1987, the median income of Black, female-householder families with no husbands present was only $9,710.

Figure 10

Median Income of Married-Couple Families, by Earner Status: 1979 and 1987

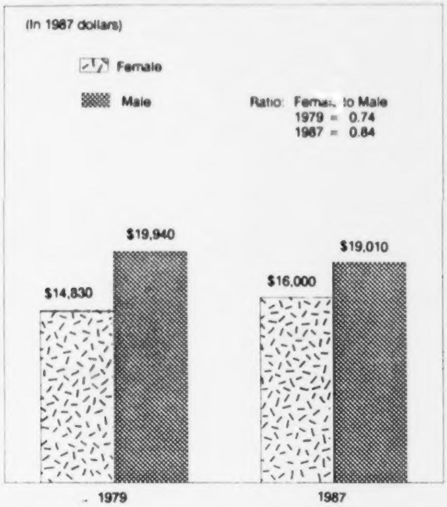


In 1987, about 60 percent of Black, married-couple families had both husband and wife with earnings. The median income of these Black families with both husband and wife working was $35,280, about 87 percent above that for families where the husband was the only earner.

The median income ratio of Black to White was 0.85 for families with both husband and wife as earners, much higher than 0.63 for families with only the husband as an earner.

Figure 11

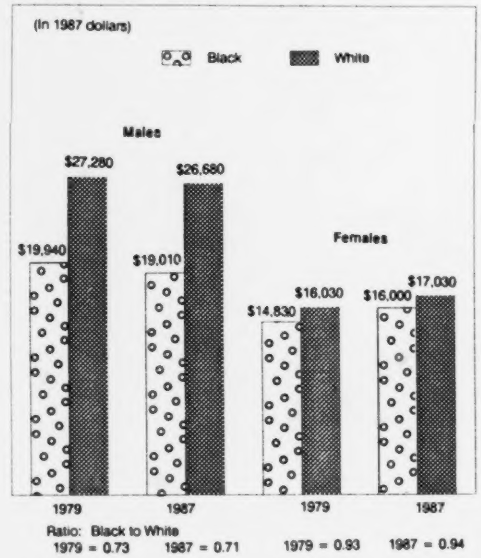
Median Earnings of Year-Round, Full-Time, Black Workers, by Sex: 1979 and 1987



The median earnings in 1987 of Black men who were year-round, full-time workers were $19,010. The apparent decline in the median earnings of Black men between 1987 and 1979 ($19,940) was not statistically significant. However, the median earnings of Black women who were year-round, full-time workers increased from $14,830 in 1979 to $16,000 in 1987. As a result, the median earnings ratio of Black women to Black men increased from 0.74 in 1979 to 0.84 in 1987.

Figure 12

Median Earnings of Year-Round, Full-Time Workers, by Sex and 1 1979 and 1987

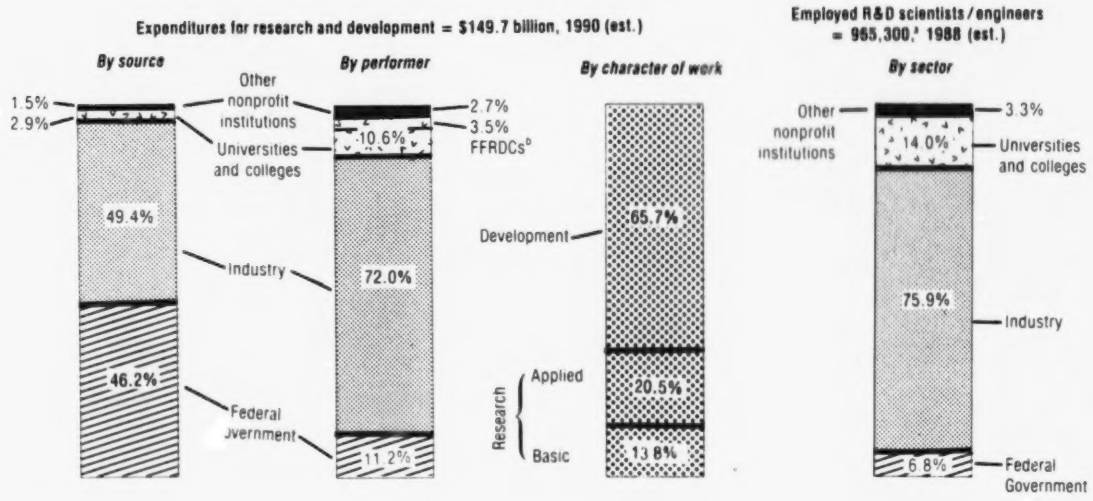


The median earnings ratio of White women to White men increased from 0.59 in 1979 to 0.64 in 1987. Among year-round, full-time workers, the 1987 median earnings ratio of Black women to Black men was higher (0.84) than that for White women to White men (0.64). White men had the highest median earnings in 1987 ($26,680) of any of the groups.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. The Black Population in the United States: A Chartbook. 1990. Pp. 6 & 7.

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN THE U.S.

The National R & D Effort



[a] Full time equivalents

[b] Federally funded research and development centers administered by universities and colleges

SOURCE National Science Foundation SRS

Additional data may be obtained from John R Chirichiello SRS Tel (202) 634 4625

National R & D Funding by Source

[Dollars in millions]

Year	Current dollars				Constant (1982) dollars[1]			
	Total	Federal Government	Industry	Other sources	Total	Federal Government	Industry	Other sources
1960	$ 13,520	$ 8,735	$ 4,516	$269	$ 43,748	$28,282	$14,592	$874
1968	24,605	14,927	9,005	673	65,673	39,981	23,871	1,821
1975	35,213	18,109	15,820	1,284	60,096	31,174	26,682	2,240
1985	113,573	52,004	57,873	3,696	102,536	47,020	52,165	3,351
1989 (est.)	141,750	65,850	70,100	5,800	112,231	52,247	55,362	4,621
1990 (est.)	149,700	69,200	73,950	6,550	113,724	52,675	56,044	5,005

National R & D Funding by Performer

[Dollars in millions]

Year	Current dollars					Constant (1982) dollars[1]				
	Total	Federal Government	Industry	Universities / colleges	Other performers	Total	Federal Government	Industry	Universities / colleges	Other performers
1960	$13,520	$1,723	$10,509	$ 646	$ 642	$43,748	$5,608	$33,955	$2,103	$2,083
1968	24,605	3,494	17,429	2,149	1,533	65,673	9,513	46,194	5,851	4,115
1975	35,213	5,354	24,187	3,409	2,263	60,096	9,425	40,781	6,001	3,889
1985	113,573	12,945	84,067	9,663	6,898	102,536	11,752	75,770	8,773	6,240
1989 (est.)	141,750	15,800	102,750	14,450	8,750	112,231	12,611	81,136	11,534	6,951
1990 (est.)	149,700	16,700	107,850	15,800	9,350	113,724	12,782	81,723	12,093	7,125

Source: National Science Foundation. Science and Technology Data Book 1990. Pp. 2,3,4.

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT continued

National Expenditures on Research and Development [1] by Selected Countries: 1961-88

[Constant 1982 dollars in billions[1]]

Year	France	West Germany	Japan	United Kingdom	United States
1961	3.2	NA	3.9	8.1	45.9
1962	3.6	4.2	4.4	NA	48.3
1963	4.0	4.9	4.9	NA	52.7
1964	5.0	5.8	5.5	8.4	57.4
1965	5.8	6.7	6.1	NA	59.5
1966	6.3	7.3	6.6	8.8	62.8
1967	6.8	7.9	7.6	8.9	64.6
1968	7.0	8.4	9.0	9.1	65.7
1969	7.1	8.3	10.5	9.4	64.9
1970	7.1	9.9	12.4	NA	62.6
1971	7.4	10.9	13.3	NA	60.6
1972	7.7	11.4	14.7	9.3	61.6
1973	7.7	11.3	16.1	NA	62.6
1974	8.1	11.5	16.4	NA	61.5
1975	8.1	11.9	16.7	10.1	60.1
1976	8.4	12.1	17.3	NA	62.3
1977	8.6	12.4	18.0	NA	63.9
1978	9.0	13.3	19.3	11.1	67.0
1979	9.4	15.0	21.2	NA	70.3
1980	9.8	15.3	23.4	NA	73.5
1981	10.8	15.9	25.8	12.2	76.9
1982	11.7	16.5	27.7	NA	80.3
1983	12.0	16.0	30.1	11.9	85.8
1984	12.7	17.0	32.6	NA	94.0
1985	13.1	18.0	36.1	12.8	102.5
1986	13.4	18.3	36.6	13.6	105.2
1987	13.9	19.4	39.2	13.8	108.8
1988	14.5	20.1	42.3	13.8	111.0

[1] Conversions of foreign currencies to U S dollars are calculated with Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development purchasing power parity exchange rates Constant 1982 dollars are based on U S Department of Commerce GNP implicit price deflators

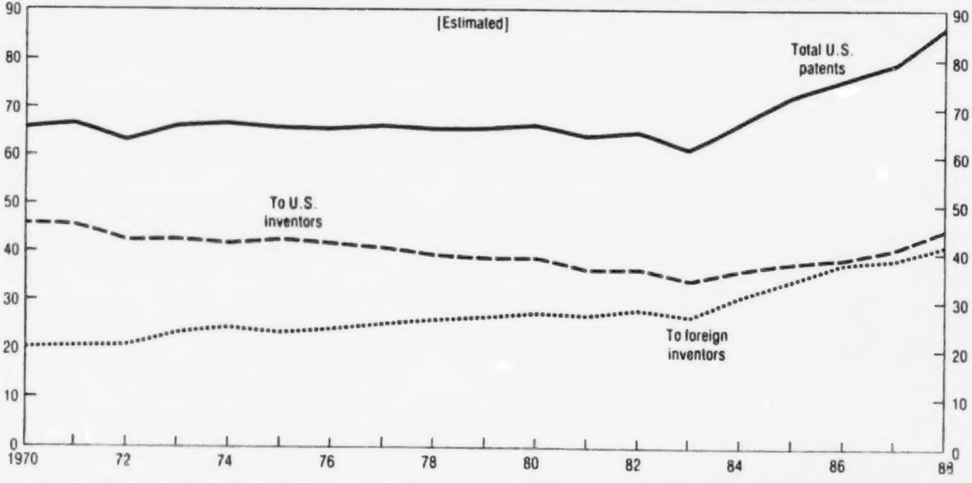
NA not available

NOTE The U S data series has been revised for the years 1979-88

SOURCES National Science Foundation SRS Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and national sources

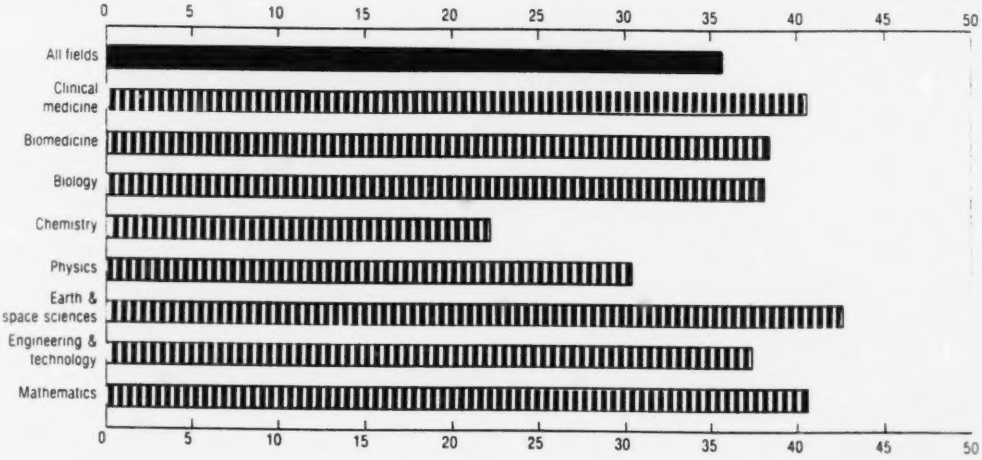
Additional data may be obtained from Jennifer Bond SRS Tel (202) 634 4640

U.S. Patents Granted to U.S. and Foreign Inventors by Year of Application



SOURCE U S Patent and Trademark Office
Additional data may be obtained from Carlos Kruytbosch SRS Tel (202) 634 4682

U.S. Scientific and Technical (S/T) Publications as a Percent of World S/T Publications: 1986



NOTE These data are based on the articles, notes, and reviews in over 3,100 influential journals carried in the 1981 *Science Citation Index* of the Institute for Scientific Information. An article written by researchers from more than one country is prorated across the countries involved, taking into account the number of authors from each country.
SOURCE Computer Horizons, Inc.
Additional data may be obtained from Carlos Kruytbosch SRS Tel (202) 634 4682

Source: National Science Foundation. Science and Technology Data Book 1990. Pp. 39, 40, 48.

OPINION

DIFFERENT VIEWS OF CHURCH-STATE RELATIONSHIP CAUSE TENSION BETWEEN WESTERN NATIONS, ISLAMIC WORLD

By GLORIA WALKER

The current hostility between Islamic fundamentalists and Western nations stems in part from their radically different views of the relationship of religion to government, said historian Bernard Lewis in the 19th annual Jefferson Lecture in the Humanities on May 10 at Stanford.

The lecture, hosted by the Hoover Institution and Stanford University, was first presented by the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) in Washington, D.C., on Wednesday, May 2.

Lewis said that religion and politics in the past have been inextricably mixed in the Islamic world, which has never shared the Western notion of the separation of church and state. This crucial difference underlies the "clash of civilizations" which is fueling the "perhaps irrational but surely historic reaction of an ancient rival against our Judeo-Christian heritage, our secular present and the worldwide expansion of both."

Improved relations between our two societies would be easier if each side would study the other's history, literature and culture, Lewis said.

As we in the West must strive to understand the Muslim world, its values and achievements, "we may hope that they too will . . . understand and respect, even if they do not choose to adopt it for themselves, our Western perception of the proper relationship between religion and politics," Lewis said.

Lewis was selected to deliver this year's Jefferson Lecture by the National Council on the Humanities, a panel of 26 distinguished citizens appointed by the U.S. president to advise NEH.

Lewis, who is the Cleveland E. Dodge Professor of Near Eastern Studies Emeritus at Princeton University, is the author and editor of more than 20 books, including *The Political Language of Islam* (1988), *The Jews of Islam* (1984), *The Muslim Discovery of Europe* (1982), *History — Remembered, Recovered, Invented* (1975), *The Assassins: A Radical Sect in Islam* (1967), *The Middle East and the West* (1964), *The Emergence of Modern Turkey* (1961) and *The Arabs in History* (1950). He has taught and lectured at a number of universities in the United States and in Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia.

In his lecture, entitled "Western Civilization: A View from the East," Lewis examined how Muslims traditionally have seen good and evil not only in moral and religious terms but also in political terms, viewing humankind and the world as divided into two parts: the faithful and the unbelievers, or the House of Islam and the House of War.

Although Lewis noted that the West still has many friends and allies in the Muslim world, the recent revival of Islamic fundamentalism is fueling an anti-Western "mood of hatred and violence" aimed at the West in general and the United States in particular.

The roots of the Muslim-Christian conflict are deep, extending over 14 centuries, Lewis said, although it was not until relatively modern times that Islamic peoples began to feel threatened by "the Christian and post-Christian civilization (which) brought the whole world, including Islam, within its orbit." Lewis attributed Muslim feelings of resentment to the West's and the U.S.S.R.'s increasing domination in the world, the invasion of Muslim countries by foreign ideas and influences, and Western-inspired social changes, notably the emancipation of women.

Of Islamic fundamentalism's violent rejection of the West, Lewis said, "the outbreak of [Muslim] rage was inevitable, against these alien, infidel and incomprehensible forces that had subverted his dominance, disrupted his society, devalued his values, impoverished and subjugated him, and finally violated the sanctuary of his home. It was also natural that his rage should be directed primarily against the millennial enemy and should draw its strength from ancient beliefs and loyalties."

As "Europe's daughter," the United States currently bears the brunt of his hatred. Although for centuries Islam largely ignored America, commercial and educational contacts between the two societies increased greatly after World War II, bringing to the Islamic world an influx of American products and cultural influences. The U.S. presence was tolerated, even welcomed, until the recent rise of Islamic fundamentalism.

What the fundamentalists detest most in American society, Lewis said, is its secularism and modernism. Both threaten the traditional, religious basis of Islam's political, economic, social and even cultural structures. While much that is Western might seem attractive, the importation of Western institutions to the Muslim world has often brought disruption and failure.

"For vast numbers of Middle Easterners, Western-style economic methods brought poverty, Western-style political institutions brought tyranny, even Western-style warfare brought defeat. It is hardly suprising that so many were willing to listen to voices telling them that the old Islamic ways were best and that their only salvation was to throw aside the pagan and infidel innovations of the reformers and to return to the True Path. . . ."

Lewis concluded by pointing to some hopeful signs. In spite of Islam's resentment, some Western ideas, such as the notion of political freedom, are gaining support and a growing appeal in Muslim lands. Even the Islamic Republic of Iran has a written constitution and an elected assembly based on Western models, he said. There are other, more tolerant and more open traditions in Islam besides fundamentalism, and Lewis said these other traditions may yet prevail.

He urged Westerners to be patient: "before this issue is decided there will be a hard struggle, in which we of the West can do little or nothing. Even the attempt might do harm, for these are issues which Muslims, and only Muslims, must decide among themselves." ◆

Source: Stanford University, Campus Report, May 16, 1990, P.4.

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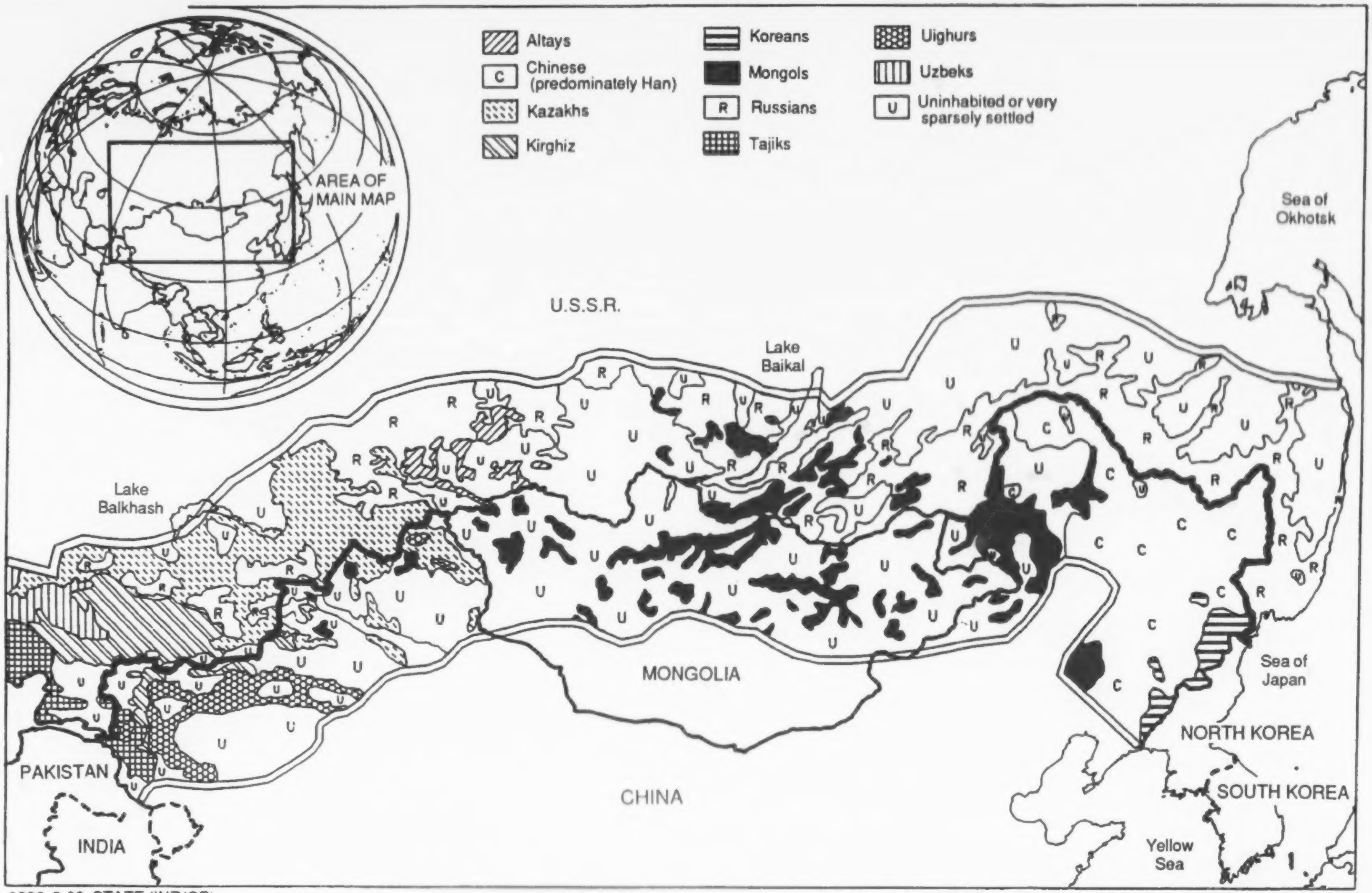
SELECTED NATIONALITIES IN THE USSR-CHINA BORDER ZONE


▨ Altays
C Chinese (predominately Han)
Kazakhs
Kirghiz
Koreans
Mongols
R Russians
Tajiks
Uighurs
Uzbeks
U Uninhabited or very sparsely settled
AREA OF MAIN MAP
U.S.S.R.
Lake Baikal
Lake Balkhash
Sea of Okhotsk
MONGOLIA
CHINA
PAKISTAN
INDIA
NORTH KOREA
SOUTH KOREA
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea

0836 3-90 STATE (INR/GE)

Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.

Source: U.S. Department of State. Geographic Notes. No. 12, June 15, 1990. P.29..

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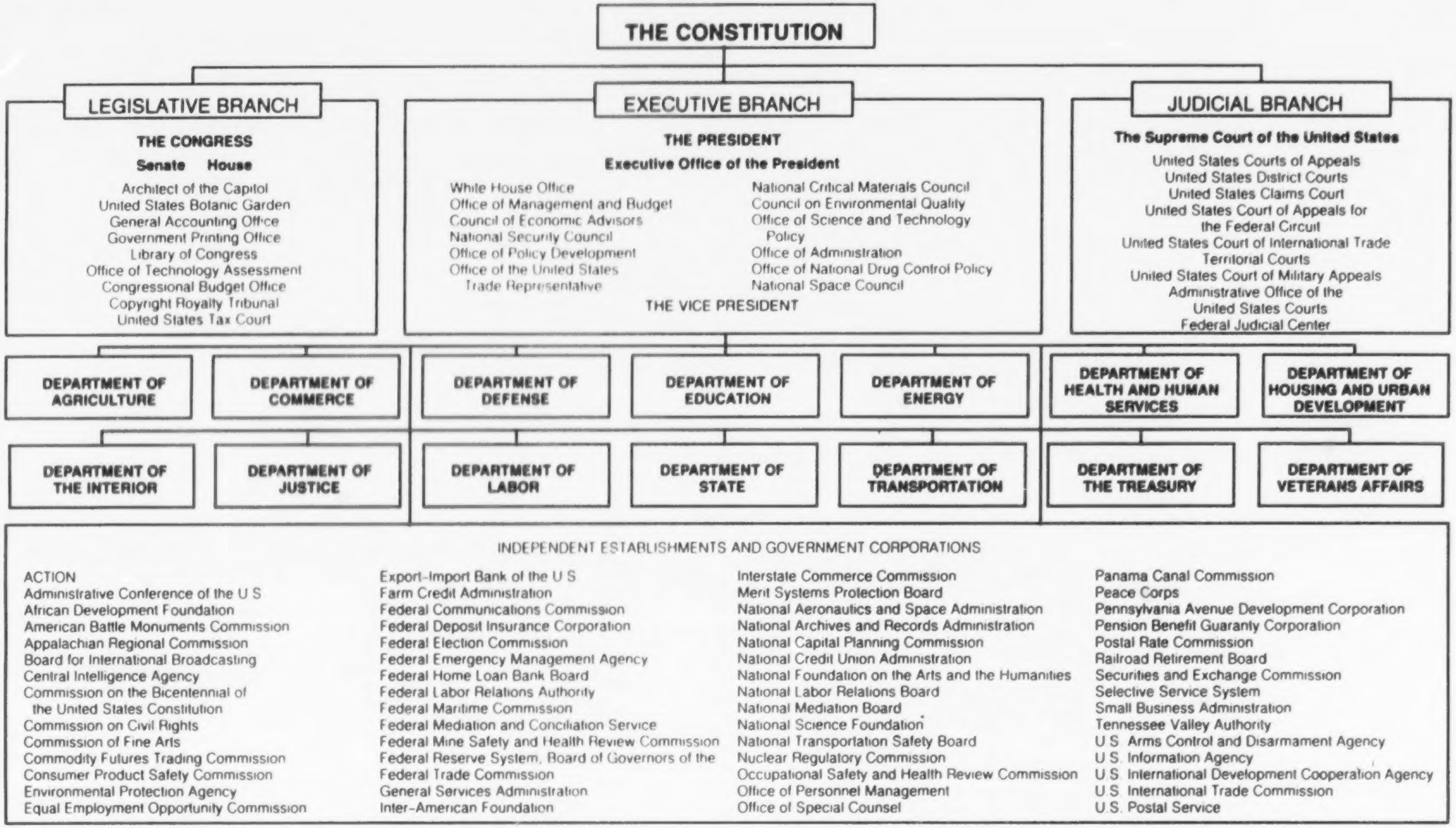
THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES

-as of June 2, 1989-



THE CONSTITUTION

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

THE CONGRESS

Senate House

Architect of the Capitol
United States Botanic Garden
General Accounting Office
Government Printing Office
Library of Congress
Office of Technology Assessment
Congressional Budget Office
Copyright Royalty Tribunal
United States Tax Court

EXECUTIVE BRANCH

THE PRESIDENT

Executive Office of the President

White House Office
Office of Management and Budget
Council of Economic Advisors
National Security Council
Office of Policy Development
Office of the United States Trade Representative
National Critical Materials Council
Council on Environmental Quality
Office of Science and Technology Policy
Office of Administration
Office of National Drug Control Policy
National Space Council

THE VICE PRESIDENT

JUDICIAL BRANCH

The Supreme Court of the United States

United States Courts of Appeals
United States District Courts
United States Claims Court
United States Court of Appeals for the Federal Circuit
United States Court of International Trade
Territorial Courts
United States Court of Military Appeals
Administrative Office of the United States Courts
Federal Judicial Center

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES
DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
DEPARTMENT OF STATE
DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION
DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY
DEPARTMENT OF VETERANS AFFAIRS

INDEPENDENT ESTABLISHMENTS AND GOVERNMENT CORPORATIONS

ACTION
Administrative Conference of the U S
African Development Foundation
American Battle Monuments Commission
Appalachian Regional Commission
Board for International Broadcasting
Central Intelligence Agency
Commission on the Bicentennial of the United States Constitution
Commission on Civil Rights
Commission of Fine Arts
Commodity Futures Trading Commission
Consumer Product Safety Commission
Environmental Protection Agency
Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
Export-Import Bank of the U S
Farm Credit Administration
Federal Communications Commission
Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation
Federal Election Commission
Federal Emergency Management Agency
Federal Home Loan Bank Board
Federal Labor Relations Authority
Federal Maritime Commission
Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service
Federal Mine Safety and Health Review Commission
Federal Reserve System, Board of Governors of the
Federal Trade Commission
General Services Administration
Inter-American Foundation
Interstate Commerce Commission
Merit Systems Protection Board
National Aeronautics and Space Administration
National Archives and Records Administration
National Capital Planning Commission
National Credit Union Administration
National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities
National Labor Relations Board
National Mediation Board
National Science Foundation
National Transportation Safety Board
Nuclear Regulatory Commission
Occupational Safety and Health Review Commission
Office of Personnel Management
Office of Special Counsel
Panama Canal Commission
Peace Corps
Pennsylvania Avenue Development Corporation
Pension Benefit Guaranty Corporation
Postal Rate Commission
Railroad Retirement Board
Securities and Exchange Commission
Selective Service System
Small Business Administration
Tennessee Valley Authority
U S Arms Control and Disarmament Agency
U S Information Agency
U S International Development Cooperation Agency
U S International Trade Commission
U S Postal Service

Source Chart prepared by U S Bureau of the Census For data, see table 512

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990. Figure 10.1 Page 306.

CONCERNING THE REBUILDING OF OUR INFRASTRUCTURE

The following are the opening paragraphs of Chapter 1, "Issues and Conclusions", from Rebuilding The Foundations, A Special Report On State and Local Public Works Financing and Management, by Congress of the United States, Office of Technology Assessment. March 1990.

"We've got all these people moving in from a neighboring State because our taxes are lower. We need roads and sewers for this new development, but we can't pay for them. And no politician wants to raise taxes—that's just too hard!" groaned an official from a fast-growing suburban jurisdiction in an industrial Midwestern State.[1]

"We don't need another special purpose tax; we need statewide tax reform," proclaimed the Governor of a Western State that does not have an income tax and relies heavily on sales and property taxes. The legislature did not agree and adjourned without acting on a carefully prepared special tax package for transportation improvements, leaving local officials, who badly needed the revenue, fuming.[2]

Roads, bridges, mass transportation, airports, ports and waterways, water supply, wastewater treatment, and solid waste disposal make up the essential infrastructure for public works services. These services underpin the public health and economic vigor of the Nation and are utilized by every citizen and every industry. But as the quotations above make clear, how to pay the bills for our Nation's public works (and other government services) remains a thorny and contentious issue. As one informed observer put it: "The impasse is deep: Americans' appetite for government services exceeds their willingness to be taxed."[3]

The Nation's 83,000 local governments are in an unenviable position; they take the direct political heat generated by public works issues. They are responsible for managing and maintaining over 70 percent of the Nation's public works facilities and services. They must also comply with Federal and State standards and regulations over which they have little control. In addition, they are caught in a bind consisting of the need to provide services on the one hand, and laws limiting how much money they can raise and how they can raise it and constituents who resent paying higher taxes on the other.

Federal and State governments, recognizing the importance of keeping the economy running smoothly, have long provided financial assistance for local public works. However, policy changes have reduced Federal contributions over the past decade, and infrastructure needs continue to outrun available dollars. Coping with the fiscal shortfall, meeting higher costs for maintaining transportation services, and ensuring that environmental facilities comply with new national standards create dilemmas for every State and local decisionmaker. Nonetheless, agreement is widespread that public works infrastructure needs upgrading and that additional investment would benefit individuals and the national economy alike. Indeed, one economist projected recently that: "If we increased spending on core infrastructure by $50 billion (1 percent of GNP), productivity would rise by an estimated $62.5 billion in the first year."[4] However, disagreements over how much additional support is needed and the most politically feasible method of providing it dog officials at every level of government.

But money problems are not the entire story. Solutions to urban problems such as air pollution and traffic congestion will require new technologies and approaches to transportation and difficult changes in longstanding management practices. For example, the view that " . . . unconstrained personal mobility and control of congestion are incompatible in the America of today and tomorrow,"[5] is now widely shared by officials in major cities, but is anathema to many of their constituents. For a number of small, remote communities, compliance with new Federal environmental standards will require financial resources beyond their fiscal capabilities. The management and technology changes necessary to resolve these problems involve staggering sums of money and require developing consensus among disparate, vocal, and tenacious industry and private citizen interest groups.

Considering all these conflicting pressures, it is small wonder that despairing descriptions of huge needs have not successfully mobilized agreement on a national approach to funding infrastructure. Efforts to date have been piecemeal. Most State govern-

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[1] Unidentified official at Dingell/Ford Municipal Officials Conference, Washington, DC, unpublished remarks, June 23, 1989.

[2] John Horsley, commissioner, Kitsap County, WA, personal communication, July 7, 1989.

[3] Robert J. Samuelson, "A Frivolous Decade?" *Washington Post*, Jan. 3, 1990, p. A15.

[4] David Alan Aschauer, economist, Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago, personal communication, Oct. 30, 1989.

[5] Alan S. Boyd, "Transportation Systems of the 21st Century: Breaking Gridlock," *Building for Tomorrow: Global Enterprise and the U.S. Construction Industry* (Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1988), p. 19.

continued →

ments have increased their support for public works, and local governments have made often heroic efforts. Yet even jurisdictions that have successfully raised taxes or fees for public works have been able to meet only their most pressing needs. Making a difficult situation worse, even when new technologies or management tools are available to make services more productive and efficient, officials are hard pressed to find funds to implement them. The current impasse over public works incorporates three critical and controversial national issues:

- the shortage of money available for competing government services, such as health and social needs, defense, education, and public works;
- the inadequate state of much of the Nation's transportation and environmental infrastructure at a time of rapid technical, industrial, and economic change; and
- the importance of preserving the environment—large, urban areas must address air and noise pollution and land use problems that diminish the quality of life and may limit growth and development, and every jurisdiction must upgrade its public works to comply with new environmental standards.

These three issues are interrelated in numerous, complex ways, but in their simplest forms, they have been on a collision course in recent years. As the 1990s begin, political and financial considerations intrude on every debate about preserving environmental quality and renewing our infrastructure.

To assess the progress of State and local governments in coping with infrastructure problems and to outline the framework for congressional decisionmaking, the Office of Technology Assessment (OTA) has prepared this special report documenting recent trends in public works financing and management. The report presents snapshots of current approaches and identifies successful programs and issues that have yet to be resolved. It provides background information and the State and local context for OTA's forthcoming report, *Rebuilding the Foundations: Public Works Technologies, Management, and Financing*, scheduled to be completed in the summer of 1990.

PAYING THE BILLS

Why have public works reached what many call a crisis point?—primarily because the costs of services that local governments must or wish to provide have outstripped the political acceptability of raising property taxes—their most important source of revenue. In 1987, property taxes generated over 70 percent of the tax revenue collected by all local governments[6]—50 percent for cities, which usually have a more diversified tax base than counties and towns. User fees, sales, income, and dedicated taxes, Federal and State monies, and private sector investment, when it is available, provide the remainder. Required by State laws to balance their budgets and limited by law (in over one-half the States) and by voter resistance in the tax increases they can impose, local governments count on every dollar from each of these sources. Declining Federal monies and State governments that have contributed substantial funding support only for highways and bridges are other contributing factors.

The Federal Role

The constitutional basis for a Federal role in public works lies in the responsibility of the Federal Government for interstate commerce, the general welfare, and national defense. Over the years our national government has addressed these goals by funding construction of a broad range of public works infrastructure, particularly for transportation and water resources. Historically, transportation facilities that promote interstate commerce—ports and waterways, rights-of-way for railroads, airports and airways, and highways—have been supported with Federal monies. Local governments, with some help from their States, have maintained and operated most of these facilities, except for waterways (which are the responsibility of the Army Corps of Engineers) and freight railroads (which are privately owned and managed).... ❖

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[6] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Government Finances in 1986-87* (Washington, DC: November 1988), p. xv.

SUMMARY OF FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCES: 1971-72 TO 1986-87

Detail may not add to total because of rounding. For meaning of abbreviations and symbols, see introductory text]

Item	Amount (million dollars)				Per capita			
	1986-87	1981-82	1976-77	1971-72	1986-87	1981-82	1976-77	1971-72
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
REVENUE								
Revenue	**1 679 589**	**1 146 271**	**657 306**	**382 935**	**6 968.18**	**4 940.91**	**2 990.56**	**1 829.74**
General revenue	1 236 944	866 392	506 324	308 321	5 131.76	3 734.51	2 303.99	1 473.22
Taxes	944 627	671 515	419 778	263 343	3 919.01	2 894.51	1 910.17	1 258.30
Property	121 112	82 067	62 527	42 877	502.46	353.75	284.53	204.88
Sales, gross receipts, and customs	192 986	139 286	83 821	57 619	800.65	600.39	381.42	275.31
Individual income	476 240	348 849	185 971	109 964	1 975.80	1 503.69	846.25	525.43
Corporation net income	106 598	64 235	64 066	36 582	442.25	276.88	291.53	174.80
Other taxes	47 691	37 075	23 393	16 302	197.86	159.81	106.45	77.89
Charges and miscellaneous general revenue	292 317	194 878	86 546	44 979	1 212.75	840.00	393.82	214.92
Utility and liquor store revenue	50 168	34 040	17 541	9 828	208.13	146.73	79.82	46.96
Insurance trust revenue	392 477	245 838	133 340	64 786	1 628.29	1 059.67	606.75	309.56
Federal social security (OASDHI)	275 874	181 598	92 495	47 341	1 144.53	782.76	420.89	226.20
Unemployment compensation	19 129	17 103	15 465	3 713	79.36	73.72	70.37	17.74
Employee retirement	83 977	38 245	20 072	10 625	348.40	164.85	91.34	50.77
Other insurance trust revenue	13 497	8 892	5 309	3 107	56.00	38.33	24.16	14.85
EXPENDITURE								
Expenditure	**1 811 733**	**1 233 263**	**682 492**	**399 099**	**7 516.41**	**5 315.88**	**3 105.62**	**1 906.97**
By character and object:								
Current operation	963 217	640 948	367 996	226 955	3 996.14	2 762.76	1 674.54	1 084.44
Capital outlay	195 713	129 474	75 160	55 443	811.96	558.09	342.01	264.92
Construction	86 565	61 682	43 763	33 221	359.14	265.87	199.14	158.74
Equipment, land, and existing structures	109 147	67 792	31 397	22 221	452.82	292.21	142.87	106.18
Assistance and subsidies	89 003	69 152	48 837	28 005	369.25	298.07	222.23	133.81
Interest on debt	196 542	126 137	46 413	24 061	815.40	543.70	211.20	114.97
Insurance benefits and repayments	367 258	267 553	144 085	64 635	1 523.66	1 153.26	655.65	308.84
Exhibit: Expenditure for salaries and wages	403 996	295 855	193 182	133 764	1 676.07	1 275.26	879.06	639.15
By function:								
General expenditure	1 375 367	917 299	514 217	323 065	5 706.04	3 953.94	2 339.90	1 543.67
Current expenditure	1 195 306	800 319	446 017	270 643	4 959.01	3 449.71	2 029.56	1 293.19
Capital outlay	180 061	116 980	68 200	52 422	747.03	504.23	310.34	250.48
Selected Federal programs:								
National defense and international relations	319 084	204 275	105 596	81 719	1 323.80	880.51	480.51	390.47
Postal service	32 243	21 761	14 641	9 366	133.77	93.80	66.62	44.75
Space research and technology	7 450	6 181	4 008	3 369	30.91	26.64	18.24	16.10
Education services:								
Education	240 647	165 766	111 794	70 376	998.36	714.52	508.71	336.27
Libraries	3 663	2 198	1 407	816	15.20	9.47	6.40	3.90
Social services and income maintenance:								
Public welfare	106 407	78 780	49 433	23 605	441.46	339.56	224.94	112.79
Hospitals	47 970	36 243	21 275	12 797	199.02	156.22	96.81	61.14
Health	24 634	16 982	9 272	4 393	102.20	73.20	42.19	20.99
Social insurance administration	6 775	5 409	3 691	2 291	28.11	23.31	16.79	10.95
Veterans' services	17 217	15 023	10 219	6 933	71.43	64.75	46.50	33.13
Transportation:								
Highways	52 978	35 096	23 323	19 261	219.79	151.28	106.13	92.03
Air transportation	8 737	5 442	3 369	3 698	36.25	23.46	15.33	17.67
Water transport and terminals	3 722	3 495	2 332	1 557	15.44	15.06	10.61	7.44
Other transportation	1 002	706	483	171	4.16	3.04	2.20	.82
Public safety:								
Police protection	28 778	18 511	11 788	6 963	119.39	79.79	53.64	33.27
Fire protection	10 453	7 026	4 412	2 579	43.37	30.28	20.08	12.32
Correction	17 562	8 892	4 604	2 223	72.86	38.33	20.95	10.62
Protective inspection and regulation	4 417	2 787	1 637	(NA)	18.32	12.01	7.45	-.05
Environment and housing:								
Natural resources	93 006	45 541	22 384	14 571	385.86	196.30	101.86	69.62
Parks and recreation	12 521	8 876	5 698	2 318	51.95	38.26	25.93	11.08
Housing and community development	21 308	16 494	5 599	5 137	88.40	71.10	25.48	24.54
Sewerage	15 148	10 806	7 052	3 259	62.85	46.58	32.09	15.57
Sanitation other than sewerage	6 499	4 134	2 374	1 587	26.96	17.82	10.80	7.58
Government administration:								
Financial administration	18 698	11 981	7 258	4 068	77.57	51.64	33.03	19.44
Judicial and legal	12 374	5 481	1 565	(NA)	51.34	23.63	7.12	-.05
General public buildings	4 848	3 286	2 442	1 529	20.11	14.16	11.11	7.30
Other government administration	8 216	7 419	5 966	(NA)	34.09	31.98	27.15	-.05
Interest on general debt	188 046	121 976	44 510	23 143	780.15	525.77	202.54	110.58
General expenditure, n.e.c.	60 965	46 731	26 087	15 338	252.93	201.43	118.71	73.29
Utility and liquor store expenditure	69 108	48 412	24 190	11 398	286.71	208.68	110.07	54.46
Insurance trust expenditure	367 258	267 553	144 085	64 635	1 523.66	1 153.26	655.65	308.84
Federal social security (OASDHI)	282 212	201 204	103 177	46 949	1 170.82	867.27	469.50	224.33
Unemployment compensation	15 412	18 472	14 877	4 861	63.94	79.62	67.70	23.23
Employee retirement	55 594	37 486	19 220	8 574	230.65	161.58	87.46	40.97
Other insurance trust expenditure	14 040	10 391	6 811	4 252	58.25	44.79	30.99	20.32
Indebtedness—total debt outstanding at end of fiscal year	3 081 205	1 551 565	968 794	612 479	12 783.12	6 687.90	4 408.42	2 926.55

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1987 Census of Governments. Volume 4 Government Finances. Summary 1, Table 1.

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SUMMARY OF GOVERNMENT FINANCES BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF GOVERNMENT: 1986-87

[Million dollars. Detail may not add to total because of rounding. For meaning of abbreviations and symbols, see introductory text]

Item	All governments[1]	Federal Government	State and local governments[1]	State governments	Local governments					
					Total[1]	County[1]	Municipal[1]	Township[1]	School district[1]	Special district[1]
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
REVENUE										
Revenue, total[1]	**1 679 589**	**952 631**	**844 302**	**517 217**	**470 872**	**105 864**	**170 072**	**15 060**	**139 282**	**50 653**
General revenue[1]	1 236 944	667 004	687 284	419 487	411 584	101 289	130 503	14 176	138 534	37 122
Intergovernmental revenue[1]	(1)	2 487	114 857	102 381	156 263	37 268	37 753	3 982	76 516	10 783
From Federal Government	(1)	-	114 857	95 463	19 395	3 642	8 390	481	1 119	5 763
General revenue sharing	(1)	-	2 451	-	2 451	1 039	1 169	243	-	-
From State government	(1)	2 487	(1)	-	136 869	32 190	26 420	3 206	73 102	1 951
From local governments[1]	(1)	-	(1)	6 918	(1)	1 436	2 943	295	2 295	3 069
General revenue from own sources	1 236 944	664 517	572 427	317 106	255 321	64 021	92 749	10 194	62 018	26 338
Taxes	944 627	539 400	405 227	246 933	158 293	37 341	55 566	8 109	51 786	5 491
Property	121 112	-	121 112	4 609	116 503	27 434	27 265	7 476	50 466	3 862
Sales, gross receipts, and customs	192 986	48 423	144 563	119 838	24 725	7 041	15 654	22	467	1 541
Individual income	476 240	392 557	83 683	75 965	7 718	1 006	6 110	182	419	-
Corporation net income	106 598	83 926	22 672	20 724	1 947	-	1 947	-	-	-
Other taxes	47 691	14 494	33 197	25 797	7 400	1 859	4 590	429	434	88
Charges and miscellaneous general revenue	292 317	125 117	167 200	70 173	97 027	26 681	37 183	2 084	10 232	20 847
Utility and liquor store revenue	50 168	-	50 168	5 797	44 371	1 416	29 087	752	-	13 115
Insurance trust revenue	392 477	285 627	106 850	91 933	14 917	3 159	10 482	133	728	416
Federal social security (OASDHI)	275 874	275 874	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unemployment compensation	19 129	204	18 925	18 839	86	-	86	-	-	-
Employee retirement	83 977	4 486	79 491	64 660	14 831	3 159	10 396	133	728	416
Other insurance trust revenue	13 497	5 063	8 434	8 434	-	-	-	-	-	-
EXPENDITURE										
Expenditure[1]	**1 811 733**	**1 148 654**	**777 045**	**455 700**	**465 420**	**103 239**	**164 049**	**14 710**	**138 120**	**52 416**
By character and object:										
Intergovernmental expenditure[1]	(1)	111 511	2 456	141 279	5 251	5 090	4 807	626	382	1 459
Current operation	963 217	412 126	551 091	199 806	351 285	71 925	113 460	11 748	124 876	29 275
Capital outlay	195 713	96 871	98 842	37 209	61 633	11 459	25 832	1 681	10 120	12 541
Construction	86 565	12 403	74 162	28 174	45 988	8 594	19 139	1 118	6 337	10 801
Equipment, land, and existing structures	109 147	84 468	24 679	9 035	15 645	2 865	6 694	563	3 783	1 740
Assistance and subsidies	89 003	65 537	23 466	14 705	8 761	6 646	2 108	7	-	-
Interest on debt	196 542	146 155	50 387	19 385	31 002	6 948	12 028	541	2 511	8 974
Insurance benefits and repayments	367 258	316 454	50 804	43 316	7 488	1 169	5 814	107	231	167
Exhibit: Expenditure for salaries and wages	403 996	129 262	274 734	81 211	193 523	37 149	55 497	5 801	83 919	11 157
By function:										
General expenditure[1]	1 375 367	832 200	657 134	403 942	397 266	99 617	124 614	13 768	137 889	28 492
Current expenditure[1]	1 195 306	735 329	573 944	368 858	351 207	88 967	105 118	12 203	127 769	22 218
Capital outlay	180 061	96 871	83 190	35 086	48 104	10 650	19 495	1 565	10 120	6 274
Selected Federal programs:										
National defense and international relations	319 084	319 084	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Postal service	32 243	32 243	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Space research and technology	7 450	7 450	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Education services:										
Education	240 647	32 016	226 619	149 901	165 206	14 023	13 419	3 862	135 378	316
Libraries	3 663	425	3 298	585	3 010	844	1 613	194	-	424
Social services and income maintenance:										
Public welfare	108 407	74 008	82 650	78 454	20 924	14 388	6 400	167	-	-
Hospitals	47 970	8 013	40 184	18 048	22 569	9 946	5 496	75	-	7 163
Health	24 634	12 279	16 903	14 083	7 790	5 675	1 921	106	-	196
Social insurance administration	6 775	6 524	2 752	2 741	11	-	11	-	-	-
Veterans' services	17 217	17 068	129	129	-	-	-	-	-	-
Transportation:										
Highways	52 978	13 481	52 355	38 273	20 910	8 192	10 126	2 227	-	553
Air transportation	8 737	4 740	4 914	697	4 440	977	2 207	13	-	1 357
Water transport and terminals	3 722	1 969	1 751	561	1 216	83	437	4	-	715
Other transportation	1 002	-	1 002	2 171	1 953	531	1 955	49	-	192
Public safety:										
Police protection	28 778	4 231	24 742	4 048	21 111	5 270	14 819	1 137	-	-
Fire protection	10 453	-	10 453	-	10 472	1 120	7 904	672	-	856
Correction	17 562	924	16 638	11 704	5 920	4 640	1 337	1	-	-
Protective inspection and regulation	4 417	-	4 417	2 925	1 531	308	1 141	83	-	-
Environment and housing:										
Natural resources	93 006	85 113	9 943	7 816	2 599	1 203	90	34	-	1 291
Parks and recreation	12 521	1 573	11 018	2 135	9 146	1 770	5 953	390	-	1 129
Housing and community development	21 308	20 190	11 770	2 129	10 492	857	5 603	80	-	4 068
Sewerage	15 148	-	15 148	970	14 784	1 951	9 098	705	-	3 695
Sanitation other than sewerage	6 499	-	6 499	-	6 507	1 356	4 458	512	-	221
Government administration:										
Financial administration	18 698	5 826	12 872	6 459	6 522	2 825	3 340	401	-	-
Judicial and legal	12 374	2 271	10 103	4 287	6 161	4 587	1 479	103	-	-
General public buildings	4 848	-	4 848	1 106	3 741	1 867	1 645	229	-	-
Other government administration	8 216	1 133	7 083	4 696	5 188	2 146	2 557	490	-	-
Interest on general debt	188 046	146 155	41 891	18 587	23 304	6 713	9 268	502	2 511	4 312
General expenditure, n.e.c.	60 965	35 374	37 151	34 230	21 756	8 345	12 339	1 731	-	1 982
Utility and liquor store expenditure	69 108	-	69 108	8 442	60 666	2 453	33 621	835	-	23 758
Insurance trust expenditure	367 258	316 454	50 804	43 316	7 488	1 169	5 814	107	231	167
Federal social security (OASDHI)	282 212	282 212	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unemployment compensation	15 412	164	15 248	15 174	74	-	74	-	-	-
Employee retirement	55 594	25 991	29 603	22 189	7 414	1 169	5 740	107	231	167
Other insurance trust expenditure	14 040	8 087	5 953	5 953	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indebtedness—total debt outstanding at end of fiscal year	3 081 205	2 354 073	727 132	265 551	461 580	89 749	181 634	7 926	35 248	137 023

[1] Duplicative intergovernmental transactions are excluded; see text.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1987 Census of Governmen
Volume 4 Government Finances. Summary 2, Table 2.

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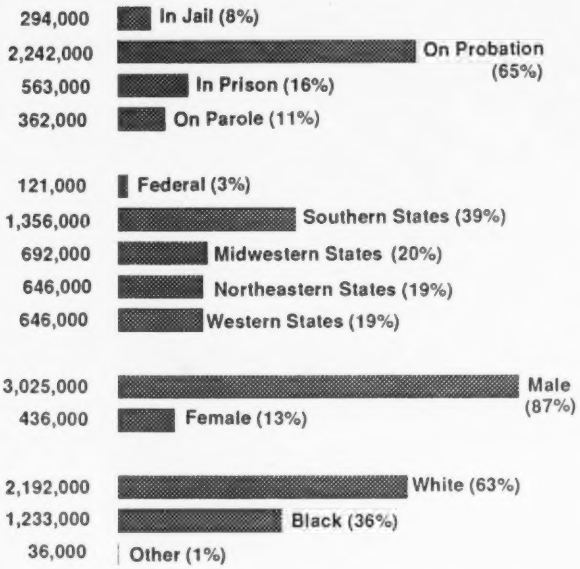
PROFILES

Correctional Populations in the United States, 1987

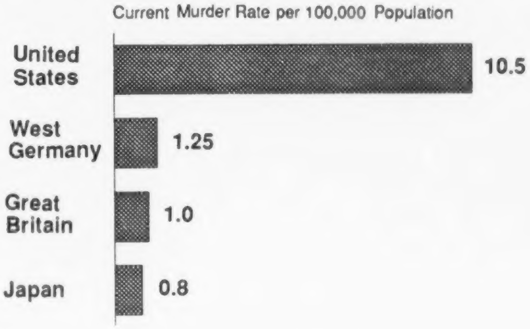
3,461,000 persons under correctional supervision (1.9% of U.S. adult population)



Northeastern States: CT, ME, MA, NH, NJ, NY, PA, RI, VT
Midwestern States: IL, IN, IA, KS, MI, MN, MO, NE, ND, OH, SD, WI
Southern States: AL, AR, DE, DC, FL, GA, KY, LA, MD, MS, NC, OK, SC, TN, TX, VA, WV
Western States: AK, AZ, CA, CO, HI, ID, MT, NV, NM, OR, UT, WA, WY

U.S. Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Statistics. Correctional Populations in the United States, 1987. NCJ-118762. December 1989. Cover 1.

The United States: "The Most Murderous Industrialized Nation"



Record U.S. Murder Rate Seen

Projected murders for 1990 set at 23,220 -- up from 23,040 in 1980 and 9,110 in 1960. Blame is placed on rising stockpiles of assault weapons and shrinking supplies of cocaine.

Source: U.S. Senate Judiciary Committee report released July 31, 1990.

World's Leading Nations in 1989 Per Capita Consumption of Beef, Pork, and Poultry

	Beef and Veal		Pork		Poultry	
	Country Rankings	Pounds Per Capita[1]	Country Rankings[2]	Pounds Per Capita[1]	Country Rankings	Pounds Per Capita[3]
1.	Argentina	155.4	Hungary	169.4	United States	84.9
2.	Uruguay	127.7	East Germany	154.3	Singapore	82.9
3.	United States	99.3	Denmark	134.1	Israel	77.7
4.	Canada	87.6	Czechoslovakia	129.2	Hong Kong	68.8
5.	Australia	82.5	West Germany	112.8	Saudi Arabia	63.6
6.	New Zealand	81.3	Austria	112.2	Kuwait	61.5
7.	USSR	66.2	Belgium-Lux.	104.1	Canada	59.7
8.	France	62.9	Bulgaria	101.5	Australia	52.7
9.	Czechoslovakia	59.2	Spain	100.1	Hungary	51.9
10.	Italy	59.2	Netherlands	99.0	Spain	49.6
11.	Switzerland	57.3	Poland	98.8	Taiwan	46.5
12.	West Germany	56.8	Hong Kong	94.7	Portugal	44.6
13.	Greece	56.6	Switzerland	91.8	France	43.2
14.	Mexico	55.4	Taiwan	83.5	United Kingdom	42.0
15.	Panama	52.9	Ireland	77.8	United Arab Emir	41.6

[1] Carcass-weight equivalents.
[2] The United States ranked 23rd, at 66.6 pounds per capita.
[3] Ready-to-cook basis.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline/July 1990. P.15.

continued →

PROFILES continued

Legislative Goals

The following is from The American Forestry Association. PO Box 2000, Washington DC 20013. (202) 667-3300

The potential for major and damaging climate change created by human mismanagement of the biosphere challenges people everywhere to look to new goals -- goals that establish new visions of how our generation will not only halt environmental destruction, but reverse it and regenerate more stable, more balanced ecosystems that contribute to the re-stabilization of global systems such as climate. For the people of the United States, we suggest the following targets:

Urban Forests: Americans should plant 100 million new urban and community trees by 1992. In the average city, twice as many new trees should be planted as are removed or die each year. At the national level, a new program of incentive grants to provide matching money for new community forestry efforts should be incorporated in the National Energy Policy Act.

Rural Forests: Each state should have a working program that assures adequate reforestation of any land where timber harvests are conducted, unless land use changes are involved. Federal tax law should continue to provide reforestation tax incentive.

- The 1990 Farm Bill should contain incentives for reforesting an additional 20 million acres of marginal crop and pasture lands through extension and expansion of the Conservation Reserve. It should also contain new incentives for establishing windbreaks, shelterbelts and steam corridor forests.
- Federal and State programs that provide education, technical, and financial assistance to nonindustrial private forest owners should be expanded, with a target of doubling their total current effort by 1992.
- Forest managers should double the acreage of U.S. forests that are well-stocked and growing at their estimated potential rate of vigor by the turn of the Century. On the federally-owned forests, the reforestation backlog should be eliminated.

Line-Item Veto: a power (which would necessitate constitutional amendment) to permit the president to reduce or eliminate individual items in spending bills.

Recission power: the ability of a president to refuse to spend money appropriated by Congress. It is politically popular becaue it accomplishes the goal of the line-item veto without requiring constitutional change.

U.S. and Ireland Are Tied for 25th in the World Infant Mortality Rate

Japan	4.8	Austria	8.1	Some Others	
Sweden	5.8	Germany, East	8.1	Israel	10.0
Finland	5.9	Norway	8.4	USSR	29
Iceland	6.2	Luxembourg	8.7	China	37
Switzerland	6.8	Australia	8.7	Colombia	46
Singapore	6.9	Netherlands Antilles	9.0	Mongolia	50
Canada	7.3	Macao	9.0	South Africa	55
Hong Kong	7.4	Spain	9.0	Iran	91
France	7.5	Belgium	9.2	India	95
Germany, West	7.5	Italy	9.5	Sierra Leone	154
Netherlands	7.6	U.K	9.5		
Denmark	7.8	U.S	9.7		
Malta	8.0	Ireland	9.7		

World Eagle table. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1990 World Population Data Sheet which states (a) Infant Mortality Rate is the annual number of deaths of infants under age 1 year per 1000 births and (b) rates shown with decimals are completely registered national statistics while those without are estimates from the Center for International Research of the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the Population Division and the Statistical Office of the United Nations, and the World Bank.

African Americans	
In the U.S.	18.0
In Boston, MA	24.4
In New York City	15.5
In Washington, DC	23.6

The Boston Globe, December 24, 1989 p. A20.

RANKINGS OF THE TOP FARM STATES

By Selected Characteristics

		1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Number of farms, June 1, 1989 U.S. total: 2,172,920 farms	farms:	Texas [illegible]	Missouri 108,000	[illegible]	Kentucky 96,000	[illegible]	Minnesota 90,000	[illegible]	Illinois 86,000
Land in farms, June 1, 1989 U.S. total: 991,473,000 acres	acres, in thousands:	Texas [illegible]	Montana 60,600	[illegible]	Nebraska 47,100	[illegible]	So. Dakota 44,300	[illegible]	Arizona 36,000
Average farm size, June 1, 1989 U.S. average: 463 acres	avg. acres per farm:	[illegible]	Wyoming 3,910	[illegible]	New Mexico 3,179	[illegible]	Alaska 1,683	[illegible]	Colorado 1,241
Total value of farm real estate (land & buildings), Jan. 1, 1990 U.S. total: $685,261,000,000[1]	millions of dollars:	Texas [illegible]	California 54,868	[illegible]	Iowa 37,860	[illegible]	Minnesota 24,942	[illegible]	Kansas 22,647
Farm real estate values per acre, Jan. 1, 1990 U.S. average: $693 per acre[1]	avg. value, $ per acre:	[illegible]	N. Jersey 4,737	[illegible]	Massachusetts 3,802	[illegible]	Delaware 2,334	[illegible]	Florida 2,144
Acres planted to principal field crops, 1989 U.S. total: 317,188,000	acres, in thousands	[illegible]	Illinois 23,541	[illegible]	Minnesota 19,384	[illegible]	Texas 19,136	[illegible]	So. Dakota 16,120
Number of cattle & calves, Jan. 1, 1990 U.S. total: 99,180,000	thousand head:	[illegible]	Kansas 5,650	[illegible]	Oklahoma 5,150	[illegible]	Iowa 4,600	[illegible]	Wisconsin 4,130
Number of hogs & pigs, Dec. 1, 1989 U.S. total: 55,469,000 head	thousand head:	[illegible]	Illinois 5,600	[illegible]	Indiana 4,300	[illegible]	Missouri 2,850	[illegible]	Ohio 2,210
Broiler production, Dec. 1, 1988 - Nov. 30, 1989 U.S. total: 5,036,221,000 birds	millions of birds:	[illegible]	Georgia 611	[illegible]	No. Carolina 523	[illegible]	Texas 292	[illegible]	Delaware 226
Number of sheep & lambs, Jan. 1, 1990 U.S. total: 10,858,000 head	thousand head:	[illegible]	California 940	[illegible]	Colorado 825	[illegible]	So. Dakota 590	[illegible]	Utah 503
Cash receipts from crop marketings, 1988 U.S. total: $72,569,013,000	millions of dollars:	[illegible]	Florida 4,697	[illegible]	Iowa 4,029	[illegible]	Minnesota 2,743	[illegible]	Indiana[2] 2,643
Cash receipts from marketings of livestock products, 1988 U.S. total: $78,861,748,000	millions of dollars:	[illegible]	Nebraska 5,336	[illegible]	California 4,704	[illegible]	Kansas 4,265	[illegible]	Colorado 2,655
Direct government payments to farmers, 1988 U.S. total: $14,479,000,000	millions of dollars:	[illegible]	Illinois 1,374	[illegible]	Nebraska 1,092	[illegible]	Kansas 848	[illegible]	Indiana 616
Net cash income from farming, 1988 U.S. total: $59,898,700,000	millions of dollars:	[illegible]	Texas 3,889	[illegible]	Florida 3,052	[illegible]	Nebraska 2,679	[illegible]	Wisconsin 2,216

[1] Excludes Alaska and Hawaii. [2] Where state data are equal, rankings are based on the previous year's numbers.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. FARMLINE/July 1990. P.17.

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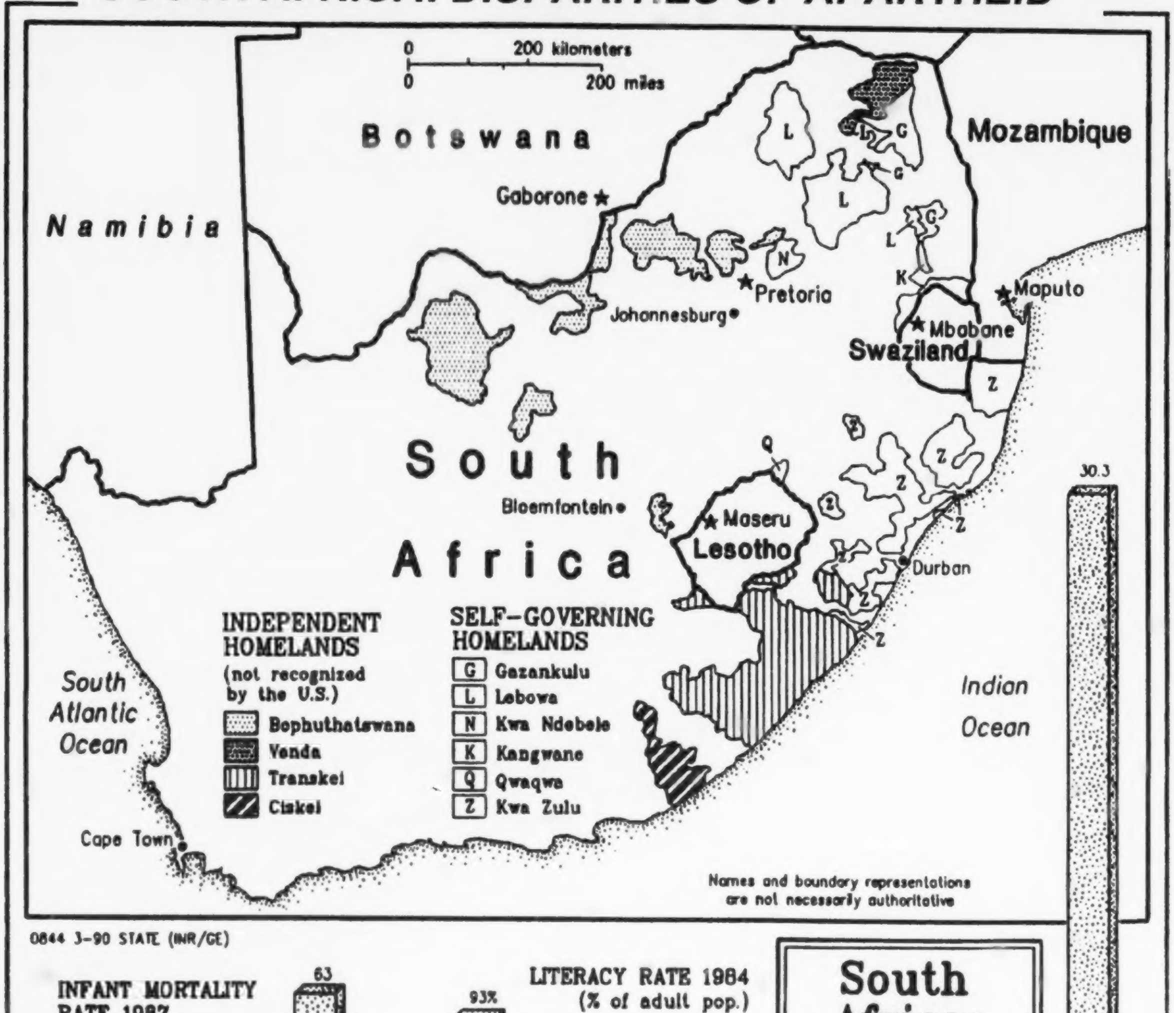
SOUTH AFRICA: DISPARITIES OF APARTHEID



0 200 kilometers
0 200 miles
Botswana
Namibia
Mozambique
Gaborone
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Maputo
Mbabane
Swaziland
South Africa
Bloemfontein
Maseru
Lesotho
Durban
Cape Town
South Atlantic Ocean
Indian Ocean
L
G
N
K
Q
Z
INDEPENDENT HOMELANDS
(not recognized by the U.S.)
Bophuthatswana
Venda
Transkei
Ciskei
SELF-GOVERNING HOMELANDS
G Gazankulu
L Lebowa
N Kwa Ndebele
K Kangwane
Q Qwaqwa
Z Kwa Zulu
Names and boundary representations are not necessarily authoritative
0844 3-90 STATE (INR/GE)
INFANT MORTALITY RATE 1987
(Deaths per 1000 in first year)
White 9
Asian 16
Colored 41
Black 63
LITERACY RATE 1984
(% of adult pop.)
White 93%
Asian 71%
Colored 62%
Black 32%
South Africa: Disparities of Apartheid
STATE SPENDING PER PUPIL 1987–88
(in U.S. $)
White 5,452
Asian 3,989
Colored 2,762
Black 1,083
INCOME PER PERSON
(in U.S. $)
White 30,280
Asian 9,280
Colored 6,105
Black 2,536
POPULATION Mid-1990
(in millions; total 39.6 million)
White 5.0
Asian 1.0
Colored 3.3
Black 30.3

Sources: South African Institute of Race Relations and the U.S. Census Bureau

Cartographers: Leo Dillon and Bill Hezlep

Source: U.S. Department of State. Geographic Notes. No. 12, June 15, 1990. P. 31.

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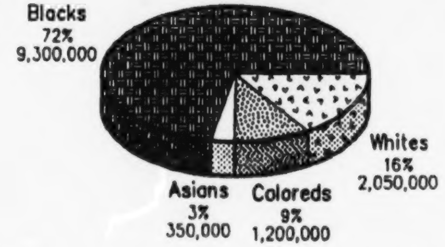
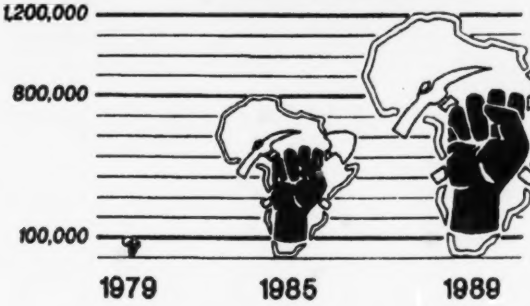
SOUTH AFRICA: LABOR FORCE AND UNIONIZATION

Economically Active Population (1989 estimates)



In 1988 a work stayaway involving 3 million black workers cost $200 million in lost GDP, underscoring the importance of black labor in South Africa's economy.

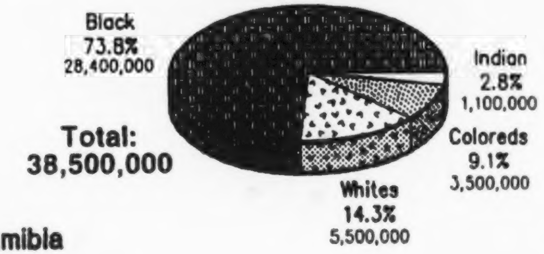
Black Trade Union Membership (Dues paying)



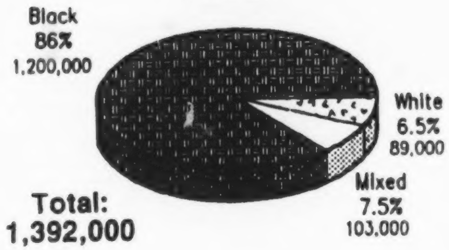
Almost 34% of black labor is now unionized; the black trade union movement has become one of the most powerful and effective anti-apartheid groups in South Africa.

ETHNIC DIVISIONS: SOUTH AFRICA, NAMIBIA, AND ZIMBABWE: JULY 1989

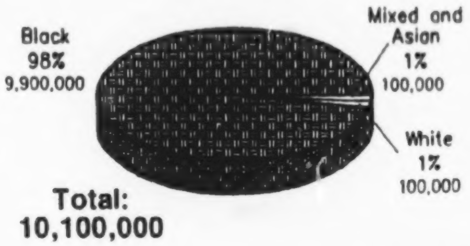
South Africa (including all homelands)



Namibia



Zimbabwe



0854 3-90 STATE (INR/CE)

Cartographer: Leo Dillon

Source: U.S. Department of State. Geographic Notes. No. 12, June 15, 1990. P. 33.

CONCERNING GOVERNMENTS AND ELECTED OFFICIALS

Number of Governments and Elected Officials: 1987

Type of government	Number of governments	Elected officials	Average per government
Total	**83,236**	**497,697**	**6.0**
U.S. Government	1	542	542.0
State governments	50	18,134	362.7
Local governments	83,185	479,021	5.8
County	3,042	55,500	18.2
Municipal	19,200	137,542	7.2
Township	16,691	118,669	7.1
School district	14,721	86,772	5.9
Special district	29,531	80,538	2.7

Characteristics of Elected Officials

The 1987 Census of Governments collected information on the sex and race of local government elected officials for the first time. This information was reported for 87 percent of the local elected officials and is presented below.

Sex

Of the total number of local government elected officials holding office in 1987, the majority (80 percent) were males and 20 percent were females. As table F shows, school districts had the highest percentage of female elected officials (27 percent) followed by township governments (23 percent), municipal governments (18 percent), county governments (17 percent), and special districts (12 percent).

Of the 335,335 males holding elective local government office, 71 percent were members of governing bodies, 8 percent were members of other elected boards, and 21 percent held other elective offices. Of the 83,739 females holding elective local government office, 56 percent were members of governing bodies, 11 percent were members of other elected boards, and 33 percent held other elective offices.

The percentage distribution by sex of persons holding elective local government office varies by region, with the Northeast having the highest percentage of females (26 percent), followed by 21 percent in the West, 19 percent in the Midwest, and 15 percent in the South.

Race

Approximately 97.5 percent of all local government elected officials were white, 2 percent were black, and .5 percent were of other races (American Indian/Alaskan Native or Asian/Pacific Islander). The percentage of non-white elected officials varied somewhat by type of local government, with municipal governments having the highest (4.1 percent) followed by school districts and county governments (3.1 percent each); the percentage of non-white elected officials was the lowest in special districts (1.1 percent) and township governments (.5 percent). Also, of the total number of local government officials, approximately 1 percent were of Hispanic origin. See tables G and H.

Of the 408,749 white persons holding elective local government office, 67 percent were members of governing bodies, 9 percent were members of elected boards, and 24 percent held other elective offices. Seventy-seven percent of the 8,267 black persons holding elective local government office were members of governing bodies, 9 percent were members of other elected boards, and 14 percent held other elective offices. Of the 2,058 American Indian or Alaska natives and Asian or Pacific Islanders holding elective local government office, 85 percent were members of governing bodies; the remainder were members of other boards or held other elective offices.

Of the 4,704 persons of Hispanic origin holding elective local government office, 79 percent were members of governing bodies, 2 percent were members of other boards, and 19 percent held other elective offices.

The percentage distribution by race of persons holding elective local government office varies by region. In the Northeast, Midwest, and West,1 percent of persons holding elective local government office are black. In the South, however, 6 percent of persons holding elective local government office are black. American Indian or Alaska natives and Asian or Pacific Islanders each comprise less than 0.5 percent of elected local government officials in the Northeast, Midwest, and South; while, in the West, 2 percent are American Indian or Alaska natives.

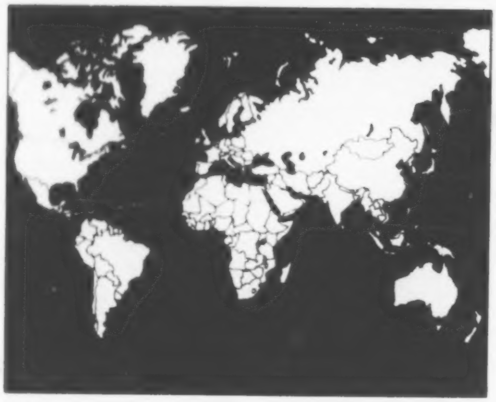
Likewise, the percentage of elective local government offices held by persons of Hispanic origin varies by region—4 percent in the West, 3 percent in the South, and less than 0.5 percent in the Northeast and the Midwest.

Local Elected Officials by Sex and Type of Government: 1987

Type of government	Total	Male	Female	Not reported	Percent of reported		
					Total	Male	Female
Local governments	**479,021**	**335,335**	**83,739**	**59,947**	**100.0**	**80.0**	**20.0**
County	55,500	45,862	9,560	78	100.0	82.8	17.2
Municipal	137,542	102,547	23,194	11,801	100.0	81.6	18.4
Township	118,669	80,242	23,883	14,544	100.0	77.1	22.9
School district	86,772	57,174	20,648	8,950	100.0	73.5	26.5
Special district	80,538	49,510	6,454	24,574	100.0	88.5	11.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1987 Census of Governments. Volume 1 Government Organization. 1990. Introduction pages VI, XI, XIII.

OPENING OF THE NORTHEAST PASSAGE

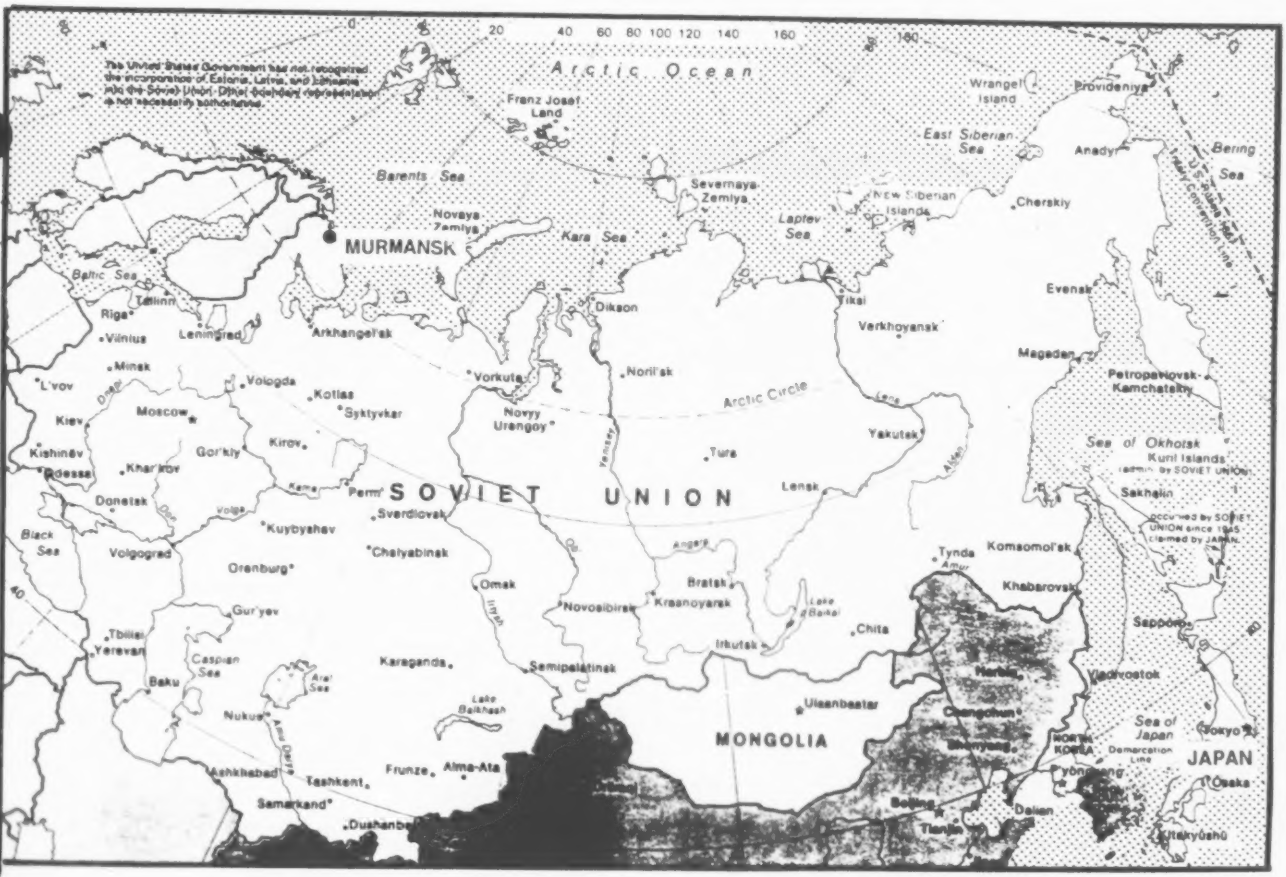


The Norwegian firm Pomor Nordic Trade was the first to take advantage of the opening of the Northeast passage when it sent a shipment to Japan via Murmansk this past July. The northeast passage is the sea route that runs across the Arctic Ocean north of the Soviet Union.

Managing Director Kare Karlstad says Pomor Nordic Trade has maintained relations with Soviet businesses for ten years. "We have imported lumber from the Soviet Union," Karlstad says. "The opening of the northeast passage presents the opportunity to carry goods in both directions. Previously our ships went to Murmansk with no cargo."

The voyage to Japan through the northeast passage takes three weeks, one third of the time it takes to send goods by the traditional route. The open-water season now runs from July through October, but Karlstad says special ships able to break through ice may be built if the project turns out to be profitable. Initially, Pomor's ships will deliver frozen fish in containers in Murmansk whence they will be transported to Japan in Soviet ships. Karlstad does not exclude the possibility of offering transportation from Central European countries to Japan through the northeast passage in the future.

Royal Norwegian Embassy, Washington DC.
News of Norway, July/August 1990.


The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Other boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.
20
40
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120
140
160
180
Arctic Ocean
Franz Josef Land
Wrangel Island
Provideniya
East Siberian Sea
Anadyr
Bering Sea
U.S.-Russia 1867 Convention Line
Barents Sea
Severnaya Zemlya
New Siberian Islands
Cherskiy
Novaya Zemlya
Kara Sea
Laptev Sea
MURMANSK
Baltic Sea
Tallinn
Riga
Vilnius
Leningrad
Arkhangel'sk
Dikson
Tiksi
Verkhoyansk
Evensk
Magadan
Minsk
L'vov
Vologda
Kotlas
Syktyvkar
Vorkuta
Noril'sk
Petropavlovsk-Kamchatskiy
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Khar'kov
Gor'kiy
Kirov
Tura
Sea of Okhotsk
Kuril Islands
occupied by SOVIET UNION since 1945, claimed by JAPAN
Donetsk
Perm
SOVIET UNION
Lensk
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Alma-Ata
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Beijing
Dalian
Dushanbe
Tianjin
Kitakyushu

U.S. Central Intelligence Agency map.

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Figures For Developing World Far Outstrip Those For Developed World

VITAL EVENTS, BY REGIONS OF THE WORLD: 1990

Region	Births	Deaths	Natural increase	Net number of migrants	Population increase
World................	141,541,824	50,255,196	91,286,628	322,430	91,609,058
Developing.........	124,286,665	38,827,869	85,458,796	-600,856	84,857,940
Developed..........	17,255,159	11,427,327	5,827,832	923,286	6,751,118
Sub-Saharan Africa...	24,757,910	7,896,807	16,861,103	-161,445	16,699,658
Near East and North Africa..............	8,841,945	2,091,087	6,750,858	238,484	6,989,342
Asia.................	79,574,536	26,565,582	53,008,954	-305,718	52,703,236
Developing.........	78,261,453	25,721,104	52,540,349	-305,718	52,234,631
Developed..........	1,313,083	844,478	468,605	0	468,605
Latin America and the Caribbean..........	12,218,323	3,062,909	9,155,414	-363,151	8,792,263
Northern America.....	4,105,029	2,376,645	1,728,384	699,422	2,427,806
Europe...............	6,362,799	5,023,418	1,339,381	131,296	1,470,677
Soviet Union.........	5,172,886	3,028,669	2,144,217	0	2,144,217
Oceania..............	508,396	210,079	298,317	83,542	381,859
Developing.........	207,034	55,962	151,072	-9,026	142,046
Developed..........	301,362	154,117	147,245	92,568	239,813
Excluding China					
World................	117,411,872	42,215,606	75,196,266	322,430	75,518,696
Developing.........	100,156,713	30,788,279	69,368,434	-600,856	68,767,578
Asia.................	55,444,584	18,525,992	36,918,592	-305,718	36,612.874
Developing.........	54,131,501	17,681,514	36,449,987	-305,718	36,144,269

continued →

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. CENDATA. 14.3 - May 23, 1990. Table 2.

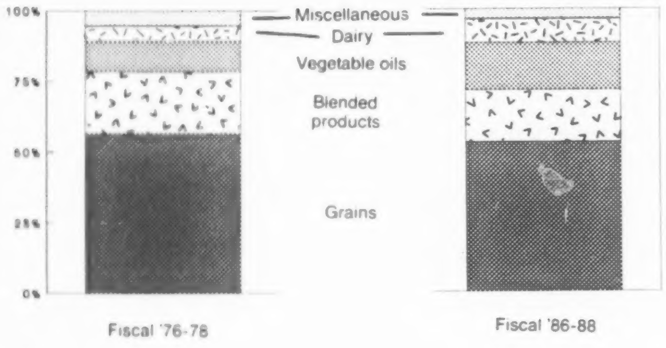
RATES OF VITAL EVENTS, BY REGIONS OF THE WORLD: 1990

Region	Births per 1,000 population	Deaths per 1,000 population	Rate of natural increase (%)	Net number of migrants per 1,000 population	Population growth rate (%)
World	26.62	9.45	1.717	0.06	1.723
Developing	30.28	9.46	2.082	-0.15	2.067
Developed	14.24	9.43	0.481	0.76	0.557
Sub-Saharan Africa	45.67	14.57	3.111	-0.30	3.081
Near East and North Africa	34.91	8.26	2.665	0.94	2.759
Asia	26.72	8.92	1.780	-0.10	1.770
Developing	27.42	9.01	1.841	-0.11	1.830
Developed	10.62	6.83	0.379	0.00	0.379
Latin America and the Caribbean	27.22	6.82	2.040	-0.81	1.959
Northern America	14.82	8.58	0.624	2.52	0.876
Europe	12.73	10.05	0.268	0.26	0.294
Soviet Union	17.78	10.41	0.737	0.00	0.737
Oceania	19.24	7.95	1.129	3.16	1.445
Developing	33.37	9.02	2.435	-1.45	2.290
Developed	14.90	7.62	0.728	4.58	1.186
Excluding China					
World	27.97	10.06	1.791	0.08	1.799
Developing	33.53	10.31	2.323	-0.20	2.303
Asia	29.81	9.96	1.985	-0.16	1.969
Developing	31.18	10.18	2.099	-0.18	2.082

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. CENDATA. 14.3 - May 23, 1990. Table 2.

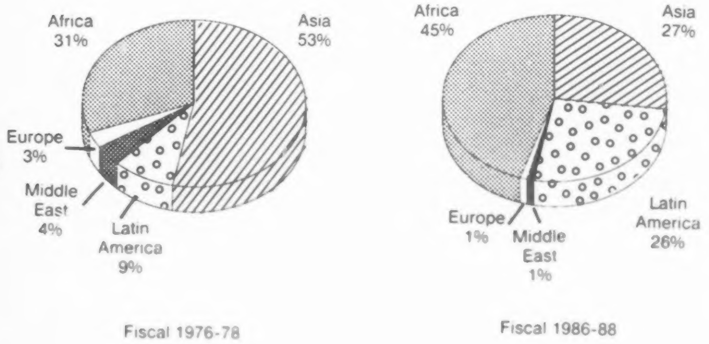
U.S. OVERSEAS FOOD AID

Figure 2. Grains Still Predominate in International Food Donations[1]



[1] Composition by value

Figure 3. Recipients of Food Aid Have Changed Since the Mid-1970's[1]



[1] By value of food aid shipped

The United States provides a wide array of commodities through its food aid programs, ranging from bulk, unprocessed commodities to food easily used in relief camps. In fiscal years 1986-88, grains comprised almost 55 percent of the value of all food aid shipments (*figure 2*). Much of it was wheat, followed by rice, corn, and sorghum. Blended products comprised about 20 percent of total U.S. food aid. These products, which can be more readily used or consumed by food aid recipients, include flour, bulgur wheat (cracked wheat), and cereal mixtures containing such ingredients as corn meal, soy flour, and nonfat dry milk.

Vegetable oils, used for cooking or as ingredients in other foods, comprised slightly more than 15 percent of the total value. Soybean oil made up the largest share of donated vegetable oils. Dairy products, largely nonfat dry milk, comprised a little less than 10 percent of the fiscal 1986-88 total value. Miscellaneous commodities included cotton, tallow, and other products. The commodity composition of U.S. food aid in fiscal 1986-88 was only slightly different from 10 years earlier. The share of grains, blended products (mainly cereal), and miscellaneous commodities showed a small decline, while vegetable oils and dairy products increased. Dairy's share increased largely because more types of products were donated than just nonfat dry milk. In fiscal 1986-88, anhydrous milk fat, butter, and cheese were also provided. The major change among the miscellaneous commodities was that tobacco was no longer provided by fiscal 1986-88, while soybeans were.

In fiscal 1986-88, Asian countries received slightly more than one-quarter of the total U.S. food aid, compared to 53 percent in fiscal 1976-78 (*figure 3*). African countries received almost half of the total in 1986-88 and Egypt alone accounted for more than 15 percent. In fiscal 1976-78, all African countries received only about 30 percent of U.S. food aid. The share of U.S. food aid shipped to Latin America grew from 9 percent in fiscal 1976-78 to 26 percent in fiscal 1986-88, reflecting unsteady growth in per capita grain production and higher debt burdens there.

The distribution of U.S. food aid shifted, in part, to reflect changes in the agricultural situation in developing countries since the mid-1970's. In general, food production per capita has not improved in Africa as much as in other regions.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, July - September 1990. Pp. 29-30.

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HOW THE U.S. PROVIDES FOOD AID

The United States provides food aid abroad through two main channels. Commodities are donated through P.L. 480, also known as the Food for Peace Program, to help meet the needs of hungry individuals and to help developing countries. The Section 416 program involves overseas donations of surplus commodities owned by USDA's Commodity Credit Corporation (CCC).

Food is distributed through three P.L. 480 programs. Under Title I, the Government provides long-term, low-interest credit for the sale of U.S. agricultural commodities to designated countries. Local currencies, generated by the sale of the aid commodities, are programmed by the recipient government and the United States for jointly agreed self-help measures such as increasing farm production and improving storage, transportation, and distribution of farm products in the recipient country. The Food Security Act of 1985 reinstated Title I sales of U.S. farm products for local currency to generate economic growth through the recipient's private sector.

P.L. 480 Title II provides donated U.S. agricultural commodities to alleviate famine, provide disaster relief, combat malnutrition, and encourage economic and community development. These donations are distributed through recipient governments, private voluntary organizations, and the World Food Program. Under the Food for Development Program (Title III), a Title I loan may be forgiven if the local currency generated from Title I commodity sales is used to finance specified development purposes.

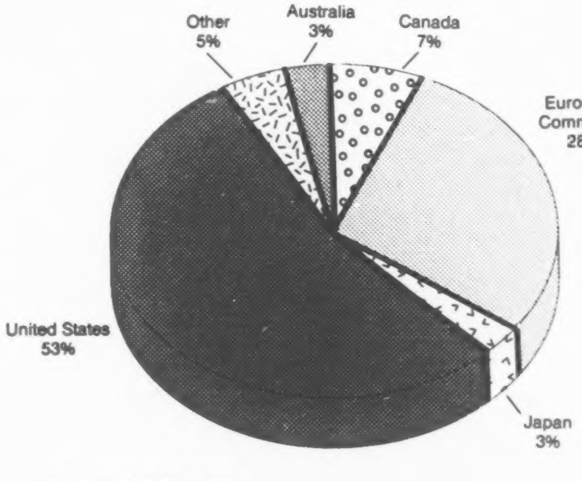
Funding for the P.L. 480 program peaked at about $2.2 billion in fiscal 1985 during the African famine. Since the Food Security Act of 1985 was enacted, P.L. 480 programming has remained relatively stable after declining from the 1985 peak to $1.5 billion in fiscal 1987-90. P.L. 480 has accounted for 5 percent or less of the value of total U.S. agricultural exports since fiscal 1974. Volumes shipped have declined from about 8.5 million tons in fiscal 1985 to about 6 million tons in fiscal 1988. This compares to peak shipment volume of more than 19 million tons in fiscal 1962.

The Section 416(b) program provides donations from surplus CCC stocks, which at times may include dairy products, wheat, flour, other grains, and soybeans. Shipments depend on the availability of surplus CCC stocks. The value of shipments reached $279 million in fiscal years 1985 and 1988. Volumes have ranged from 153,000 tons in fiscal 1984 to 2.1 million tons in fiscal 1988. For fiscal 1990, only corn, sorghum, and frozen butter are available under Section 416.

Over the years, the channels through which U.S. food aid has been distributed have changed slightly. In fiscal, 1976-78, Title I/III shipments accounted for 70 percent of the total. In fiscal 1986-88, such shipments comprised close to 65 percent. Title II's share dropped from 30 percent to 25 percent. The declines mainly were due to the growth in Section 416 shipments, which started in fiscal 1983 and accounted for about 10 percent of total shipments during fiscal 1986-88.

The United States Provides More Cereal Aid Than All Other Donors Combined[1]

The United States is a leader among nations that provide international food aid. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations estimates that in 1989/90 the United States will provide almost 53 percent of total world cereal aid shipments. World cereal aid shipments will be about 11.6 million tons in 1989/90. The European Community will donate 28 percent, followed by Canada with 7 percent, and Japan and Australia with about 3 percent each. Other donors include principally Argentina, Austria, Scandinavian countries, and Switzerland, and the World Food Program.



[1] Does not add due to rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, National Food Review, July - September 1990. Pp. 31-32.

WHERE 6,100 PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEERS AND TRAINEES ARE SERVING

Today 6,100 United States Peace Corps volunteers and trainees are working on grassroots, self-help development projects in 72 nations around the world. Another 39 Americans are serving as United Nations volunteers in 22 countries. Under the leadership of Paul D. Coverdell, director of the United States Peace Corps, the agency's efforts around the world continue to be a significant factor in our foreign assistance programs.

Peace Corps' overseas operations are administered through the three regions: sub-Saharan Africa; Central and South America and the Caribbean; and Asia, the Pacific and the Mediterranean.

Here are the current number of Peace Corps and United Nations volunteers serving worldwide:

	Africa
69	Benin
252	Botswana*
1	Burkina Faso**
28	Burundi*
170	Cameroon
7	Cape Verde
101	Central African Republic
22	Chad
9	Equatorial Guinea
98	Gabon
50	The Gambia
100	Ghana*
39	Guinea
12	Guinea-Bissau
180	Kenya
133	Lesotho*
135	Liberia***
153	Malawi
156	Mali
59	Mauritania
1	Namibia**
165	Niger
24	Rwanda
109	Senegal
128	Sierra Leone*
3	Sudan***
99	Swaziland
76	Tanzania
96	Togo
192	Zaire

	Inter-America
111	Belize
27	Bolivia
243	Costa Rica
186	Dominican Republic
198	Ecuador
305	Guatemala
16	Haiti
381	Honduras
157	Jamaica*
	Panama (program to begin 8/90)
180	Paraguay
93	Eastern Caribbean
	(Leeward Islands)
	-Antigua/Barbuda
	-Dominica
	-St. Kitts/Nevis
	-Montserrat
	-Anguilla
	(Windward Islands)
	-Grenada
	-St. Lucia
	-St. Vincent/Grenadines
	-Barbados

	Pacific, Asia & Mediterranean
11	China**
11	Comoros
	Cook Islands
92	Fiji*
2	Hong Kong**
61	Hungary
1	Indonesia**
15	Kiribati*
1	Malaysia**
2	Malta
31	Marshall Islands
74	Micronesia
174	Morocco*
176	Nepal*
12	Pakistan
22	Palau
91	Papua New Guinea*
291	Philippines***
60	Poland
14	Seychelles
74	Solomon Islands
13	Sri Lanka
214	Thailand*
1	Tokelau**
46	Tonga
1	Tuvalu
46	Vanuatu*
72	Western Samoa
55	Yemen

*Includes United Nations volunteers
**United Nations volunteers only
***Program temporarily suspended

Source: United States Peace Corps NEWS, June 1990.

SOME ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT FROM THE WORLD BANK

(The 121 Reporting Member-Economies Containing a Population of One Million or More)

(Countries are listed by Gross National Product Per Capita 1988)

	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1988	*GNP per capita[a] Dollars 1988*	*Daily calorie supply (per capita) 1986*	*Urban population As a percentage of total population 1988*	*Adult illiteracy (percent)*	
					Female 1985	*Total 1985*
Low-income economies	**60 w**	**320 w**	**2,384 w**	**35 w**	**58 w**	**44 w**
China and India	**63 w**	**340 w**	**2,463 w**	**40 w**	**56 w**	**42 w**
Other low-income	**54 w**	**280 w**	**2,226 w**	**25 w**	**62 w**	**51 w**
1 Mozambique	48	100	1,595	24	78	62
2 Ethiopia	47	120	1,749	13	..	38
3 Chad	46	160	1,717	31	89	75
4 Tanzania	53	160	2,192	30	..	..
5 Bangladesh	51	170	1,927	13	78	67
6 Malawi	47	170	2,310	14	69	59
7 Somalia	47	170	2,138	37	94	88
8 Zaire	52	170	2,163	39	55	39
9 Bhutan	48	180	..	5	..	..
10 Lao PDR	49	180	2,391	18	24	16
11 Nepal	51	180	2,052	9	88	74
12 Madagascar	50	190	2,440	24	38	33
13 Burkina Faso	47	210	2,139	9	94	87
14 Mali	47	230	2,073	19	89	83
15 Burundi	49	240	2,343	7	74	66
16 Uganda	48	280	2,344	10	55	43
17 Nigeria	51	290	2,146	34	69	58
18 Zambia	53	290	..	54	33	24
19 Niger	45	300	2,432	18	91	86
20 Rwanda	49	320	1,830	7	67	53
21 China	70	330	2,630	50	45	31
22 India	58	340	2,238	27	71	57
23 Pakistan	55	350	2,315	31	81	70
24 Kenya	59	370	2,060	22	51	41
25 Togo	53	370	2,207	25	72	59
26 Central African Rep.	50	380	1,949	45	71	60
27 Haiti	55	380	1,902	29	65	62
28 Benin	51	390	2,184	40	84	74
29 Ghana	54	400	1,759	33	57	47
30 Lesotho	56	420	2,303	19	16	26
31 Sri Lanka	71	420	2,400	21	17	13
32 Guinea	43	430	1,776	24	83	72
33 Yemen, PDR	51	430	2,298	42	75	59
34 Indonesia	61	440	2,579	27	35	26
35 Mauritania	46	480	2,322	40	..	..
36 Sudan	50	480	2,208	21	..	..
37 *Afghanistan*	..	..	..	..	..	..
38 *Myanmar*	60	..	2,[illegible]09	24	..	..
39 *Kampuchea, Dem.*	..	..	..	..	..	..
40 *Liberia*	50	..	2,381	43	77	65
41 *Sierra Leone*	42	..	1,854	26	79	71
42 *Viet Nam*	66	..	2,297	..	..	..
Middle-income economies	**66 w**	**1,930 w**	**2,846 w**	**58 w**	**31 w**	**26 w**
Lower-middle-income	**65 w**	**1,380 w**	**2,733 w**	**56 w**	**32 w**	**27 w**
43 Bolivia	53	570	2,143	50	35	26
44 Philippines	64	630	2,372	41	15	14
45 Yemen Arab Rep.	47	640	2,318	23	97	86
46 Senegal	48	650	2,350	38	81	72
47 Zimbabwe	63	650	2,132	27	33	26
48 Egypt, Arab Rep.	63	660	3,342	48	70	56
49 Dominican Rep.	66	720	2,477	59	23	23
50 Côte d'Ivoire	53	770	2,562	45	69	57
51 Papua New Guinea	54	810	2,205	15	65	55
52 Morocco	61	830	2,915	47	78	67
53 Honduras	64	860	2,068	42	42	41
54 Guatemala	62	900	2,307	33	53	45
55 Congo, People's Rep.	53	910	2,619	41	45	37
56 El Salvador	63	940	2,160	44	31	28
57 Thailand	65	1,000	2,331	21	12	9
58 Botswana	67	1,010	2,201	22	31	29
59 Cameroon	56	1,010	2,028	47	55	44
60 Jamaica	73	1,070	2,590	51	..	..
61 Ecuador	66	1,120	2,058	55	20	18
62 Colombia	68	1,180	2,542	69	13	12
63 Paraguay	67	1,180	2,853	46	15	12
64 Tunisia	66	1,230	2,994	54	59	46
65 Turkey	64	1,280	3,229	47	38	26
66 Peru	62	1,300	2,246	69	22	15
67 Jordan	66	1,500	2,991	67	37	25

Considerable effort has been made to standardize the data; nevertheless, statistical methods, coverage, practices, and definitions differ widely. In addition, the statistical systems in many developing economies are still weak, and this affects the availability and reliability of the data. Moreover, intercountry and intertemporal comparisons always involve complex technical problems which cannot be fully and unequivocally resolved. The data are drawn from sources thought to be most authoritative, but many of them are subject to considerable margins of error. Readers are urged to take these limitations into account in interpreting the indicators, particularly when making comparisons across economies. (World Bank P. 242 of source cited on next page.)

continued

ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT continued

	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1988	GNP per capita^a Dollars 1988	Daily calorie supply (per capita) 1986	Urban population As a percentage of total population 1988	Adult illiteracy (percent) Female 1985	Adult illiteracy (percent) Male 1985
68 Chile	72	1,510	2,579	85	..	6
69 Syrian Arab Rep	65	1,680	3,260	51	57	40
70 Costa Rica	75	1,690	2,803	45	7	6
71 Mexico	69	1,760	3,132	71	12	10
72 Mauritius	67	1,800	2,748	42	23	17
73 Poland	72	1,860	3,336	61	..	..
74 Malaysia	70	1,940	2,730	41	34	27
75 Panama	72	2,120	2,446	54	12	12
76 Brazil	65	2,160	2,656	75	24	22
77 *Angola*	45	..	1,880	27	..	59
78 *Lebanon*	..	..	..	..	..	..
79 *Nicaragua*	64	..	2,495	59	..	..
Upper-middle-income	**68 w**	**3,240 w**	**3,117 w**	**62 w**	**31 w**	**24 w**
80 South Africa	61	2,290	2,924	58	..	..
81 Algeria	64	2,360	2,715	44	63	50
82 Hungary	70	2,460	3,569	60	c	c
83 Uruguay	72	2,470	2,648	85	4	5
84 Argentina	71	2,520	3,210	86	5	5
85 Yugoslavia	72	2,520	3,563	49	14	9
86 Gabon	53	2,970	2,521	44	47	38
87 Venezuela	70	3,250	2,494	83	15	13
88 Trinidad and Tobago	71	3,350	3,082	67	5	4
89 Korea, Rep. of	70	3,600	2,907	69	..	..
90 Portugal	74	3,650	3,151	32	20	16
91 Greece	77	4,800	3,688	62	12	8
92 Oman	64	5,000	..	10	..	..
93 Libya	61	5,420	3,601	68	50	33
94 *Iran, Islamic Rep.*	63	..	3,313	54	61	49
95 *Iraq*	64	..	2,932	73	13	11
96 *Romania*	70	..	3,373	49	c	c
Low- and middle-income	**62 w**	**750 w**	**2,507 w**	**41 w**	**51 w**	**40 w**
Sub-Saharan Africa	**51 w**	**330 w**	**2,096 w**	**28 w**	**65 w**	**52 w**
East Asia	**66 w**	**540 w**	**2,594 w**	**46 w**	**41 w**	**29 w**
South Asia	**57 w**	**320 w**	**2,228 w**	**26 w**	**72 w**	**59 w**
Europe, M.East, & N.Africa	**64 w**	**2,000 w**	**3,177 w**	**50 w**	**53 w**	**41 w**
Latin America & Caribbean	**67 w**	**1,840 w**	**2,700 w**	**71 w**	**19 w**	**17 w**
Severely indebted	**66 w**	**1,730 w**	**2,768 w**	**66 w**	**23 w**	**20 w**
High-income economies	**76 w**	**17,080 w**	**3,376 w**	**78 w**	..	..
OECD members	**76 w**	**17,470 w**	**3,390 w**	**77 w**	..	..
†Other	**71 w**	**8,380 w**	**3,001 w**	**83 w**	..	..
97 †Saudi Arabia	64	6,200	3,004	76	..	..
98 Spain	77	7,740	3,359	77	8	6
99 Ireland	74	7,750	3,632	58	..	..
100 †Israel	76	8,650	3,061	91	7	5
101 †Singapore	74	9,070	2,840	100	21	14
102 †Hong Kong	77	9,220^b	2,859	93	19	12
103 New Zealand	75	10,000	3,463	84	c	c
104 Australia	76	12,340	3,326	86	c	c
105 United Kingdom	75	12,810	3,256	92	c	c
106 Italy	77	13,330	3,523	68	4	c
107 †Kuwait	73	13,400	3,021	95	37	30
108 Belgium	75	14,490	..	97	c	c
109 Netherlands	77	14,520	3,326	88	c	c
110 Austria	75	15,470	3,428	57	c	c
111 †United Arab Emirates	71	15,770	3,733	78	..	..
112 France	76	16,090	3,336	74	c	c
113 Canada	77	16,960	3,462	76	c	c
114 Denmark	75	18,450	3,633	86	c	c
115 Germany, Fed. Rep.	75	18,480	3,528	86	c	c
116 Finland	75	18,590	3,122	60	c	c
117 Sweden	77	19,300	3,064	84	c	c
118 United States	76	19,840	3,645	74	c	c
119 Norway	77	19,990	3,223	74	c	c
120 Japan	78	21,020	2,864	77	c	c
121 Switzerland	77	27,500	3,437	*61*	c	c
Total reporting economies	**64 w**	**3,470 w**	**2,653 w**	**47 w**	**50 w**	**39 w**
Oil exporters	**61 w**	**1,500 w**	**2,737 w**	**46 w**	**43 w**	**35 w**
Nonreporting nonmembers	**70 w**	..	**3,395 w**	**67 w**	..	..

Figures in italics are for years other than those specified

w = weighted average .. = not available

Source: The World Bank, World Development Report 1990.
Excerpted from Tables 1, 28, 31.

95

FROM THE MAY 30 AND 31, 1990 OECD COUNCIL MEETING AT MINISTERIAL LEVEL

Member nations of OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) are: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany (West), Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. In 1988, OECD member nations produced approximately 75% of the World's Gross National Product (GNP).

The Following Has Been Excerpted From The Communique's General Policy Statement

OECD Ministers welcome the historic changes taking place in Europe, particularly in Germany. These developments, together with the recent evolution of a number of the developing countries, represent a movement towards the basic values which are common to the OECD countries: pluralistic democracy, respect for human rights, and a competitive market economy. They improve the prospect of a truly integrated global economic system.

The OECD countries intend to conduct and co-ordinate their policies in ways which will support these changes, to the benefit of all. They recognise that globalisation and interdependence present great opportunities, and will co-operate actively both with one another and with the rest of the world to exploit these opportunities.

The 1990 meeting of the OECD Council at Ministerial level has reached the following broad fundamental, and closely interrelated conclusions:

.... Third, they state their commitment to assisting the developing countries, in particular the least developed amongst them, in their efforts towards economic growth and social progress, by enhancing market access to OECD economies, by improving the transfer of developmental resources, and through stable non-inflationary OECD growth. This commitment will not be altered by the support being lent to reforming countries in central and eastern Europe.

The Following Has Been Excerpted From the Communique Itself

Development co-operation is a critical global issue, given the wide and diversified range of political, social, economic, environmental, population and debt problems to be considered. It should be open to new approaches. Ministers endorse the policy statement on "Development Co-operation in the 1990" made by DAC* Aid Ministers and Heads of Aid Agencies last December. In this context, Ministers stress the following important themes:

. developing countries themselves are ultimately responsible for their development. Their own policies and institutions are central to achieving broad-based and sustainable growth, as are the active participation of their populations and their ability to mobilise domestic resource

. the developed countries cannot be prosperous for long if developing countries face growing mass poverty, economic and financial instability and environmental degradation

. development co-operation remains essential, in particular for the least developed countries, in support of improved policies, institutions and infrastructures. Particular emphasis should be put on the development of human resources, to help developing countries to stimulate the productive energies of their people - men and women alike - and to achieve competitive markets and dynamic private enterprise

. in many countries a slowing of population growth is a condition for sustainable development. Supporting the efforts of developing countries to implement effective population programmes, especially through voluntary family planning, is a matter of priority

. contributing to environmentally sustainable development is a central task for the international community as a whole. The integration of environmental concerns into development projects and programmes, while increasing benefits, will often result in increased costs, requiring the mobilisation of additional financial resources and technological transfers, including from donors.

Developments and policies in the OECD area, notably in regard to growth and interest rates, will have a considerable influence on the economic performance of the developing countries. This being so, Ministers acknowledge the importance of the contribution that can be made to the development of these countries in the context of the Uruguay Round, notably by further opening their countries' markets to developing country exports and by removing the distortions which are harming them at present. Ministers also recall the importance of substantial additional aid efforts, in both quantity and quality. In this respect they note the quantitative targets established by international organisations for official development assistance. Serious debt problems still remain an impediment to growth and development in many developing countries. Ministers therefore stress the need for continued resolute action to resolve debt problems and reaffirm support for the strengthened debt strategy. They recognise the specific difficulties which the least developed countries encounter, and express the hope that the next Paris Conference will be the opportunity for jointly defining priority objectives and reciprocal arrangements which will better meet the needs of these countries. They encourage bilateral and multilateral assistance agencies, including the multilateral development banks, to continue their efforts to integrate environmental considerations into all aspects of their activities.

* Development Assistance Committee of OECD

Source: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, The OECD Observer, August/September 1990.

OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA) PERFORMANCE OF THE 18 DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE COMMITTEE (DAC) NATIONS OF THE OECD

net disbursements

	$ million			% of GNP		% change 1989/88 in volume[2]	Annual average % change in volume[2] 1988/89 1983/84
	1989 actual[1]	1988 actual[1]	1989 at 1988 prices and exchange rates	1988	1989		
Australia	1,017	1,101	933	0.46	0.37	−15.2	1.5
Austria	282	301	295	0.24	0.23	−2.1	0.0
Belgium	716	618	740	0.41	0.47	19.6	−3.0
Canada	2,302	2,347	2,114	0.50	0.44	−9.9	4.0
Denmark	1,003	922	1,048	0.89	1.00	13.6	5.4
Finland	705	608	673	0.59	0.63	10.8	16.8
France							
incl. DOM/TOM	7,467	6,865	7,731	0.72	0.78	12.6	3.0
excl. DOM/TOM	5,140	4,777	5,322	0.50	0.54	11.4	3.8
Germany	4,953	4,731	5,168	0.39	0.41	9.2	−0.3
Ireland	49	57	51	0.20	0.17	−10.2	−0.4
Italy	3,325	3,193	3,290	0.39	0.39	3.0	13.8
Japan	8,958	9,134	9,500	0.32	0.32	4.0	3.6
Netherlands	2,094	2,231	2,228	0.98	0.94	−0.1	2.4
New Zealand	87	104	90	0.27	0.22	−12.9	−1.4
Norway	919	985	956	1.10	1.02	−2.9	4.3
Sweden	1,809	1,534	1,767	0.86	0.98	15.2	4.9
Switzerland	559	617	604	0.32	0.30	−2.1	3.2
United Kingdom	2,588	2,545	2,637	0.32	0.31	−0.3	1.1
United States	7,664[c]	10,141	7,362	0.21	0.15	−27.4	−2.0
TOTAL	**46,498**	**48,132**	**47,188**	**0.36**	**0.33**	**−2.0**	**2.2**
Unweighted average	–	–	–	**0.51**	**0.51**	–	–

1. At current prices and dollar exchange rates.
2. At 1988 exchange rates and prices.
Source: OECD

The Nations which received more than $800 million net disbursement of ODA from all sources in 1988:

Millions US $

India	$2,098	Bangladesh	$1,592	Israel	$1,241	Sudan	$918
China	1,990	Egypt	1,537	Tanzania	978	Mozambique	886
Indonesia	1,632	Pakistan	1,408	Ethiopia	970	Philippines	854
						Kenya	808

Source: The World Bank. World Development Report 1990. Table 20. Pages 216-217.

Although domestic policy is critical to the reduction of poverty, international assistance is needed to support countries' efforts. Simply increasing resources, however, will not solve the problem. Aid is most effective when it complements the recipients' efforts. The allocation of aid should be more closely linked to a country's commitment to pursue development programs geared to the reduction of poverty.

The Report's projections for the 1990s show buoyant growth of about 3 percent a year in the industrial countries and about 5.1 percent in the developing world - compared with the 4.3 percent achieved by developing countries in the 1980s. If this forecast is correct, prospects for improving the quality of life are bright in most regions - except where rapid population growth is expected to offset the beneficial effects of economic growth.

Source: Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development. The OECD Observer, August/September 1990. P. 26.

THE MAJOR STEEL-PRODUCING COUNTRIES, 1989

million metric tons crude steel production

Country	Rank	Tonnage
USSR	1	160.1
Japan	2	107.9
United States	3	88.4
China	4	61.2
FR Germany	5	41.1
Italy	6	25.2
Brazil	7	25.0
Republic of Korea	8	21.9
France	9	19.3
United Kingdom	10	18.7
Czechoslovakia	11	15.5
Canada	12	15.5
Poland	13	14.8
India	14	14.4
Romania	15	13.5
Spain	16	12.8
Belgium	17	10.9
South Africa	18	9.6
Taiwan (ROC)	19	8.6
Turkey	20	7.9
German Dem Rep	21	7.8
Mexico	22	7.8
DPR Korea (E)	23	6.9
Australia	24	6.7
Netherlands	25	5.7
Austria	26	4.7
Sweden	27	4.7
Yugoslavia	28	4.5
Argentina	29	3.9
Luxembourg	30	3.7
Venezuela	31	3.4
Hungary	32	3.3
Bulgaria	33	3.0
Finland	34	2.9
Egypt	35	2.0
Other Countries		19.3
WORLD TOTAL		782.6

This table lists all countries producing more than two million metric tons of crude steel in either year shown.

THE MAJOR IMPORTERS AND EXPORTERS OF STEEL, 1988

million metric tons

Rank	Total Exports	Tonnage
1	Japan	23.3
2	FR Germany	20.1
3	Belgium-Luxembourg	14.2
4	France	11.4
5	Brazil	10.9
6	USSR	9.4
7	Republic of Korea	7.0
8	Italy	6.8
9	United Kingdom	6.7
10	Netherlands	5.6
11	German Dem Rep	5.0
12	Czechoslovakia	4.1
13	Spain	3.9
14	Canada	3.6
15	Austria	3.1
16	Romania	3.1
17	Sweden	3.0
18	Turkey	2.8
19	South Africa	2.6
20	Poland	2.3

Rank	Total Imports	Tonnage
1	United States	19.3
2	FR Germany	14.1
3	USSR	10.5
4	France	9.5
5	China	9.0
6	Italy	9.0
7	Japan	6.9
8	German Dem Rep	5.7
9	Taiwan (ROC)	5.3
10	United Kingdom	5.2
11	Belgium-Luxembourg	5.1
12	Netherlands	4.6
13	Canada	4.0
14	Republic of Korea	3.4
15	Hong Kong	2.7
16	Spain	2.7
17	Thailand	2.5
18	Switzerland	2.2
19	Egypt	2.2
20	Singapore	2.1

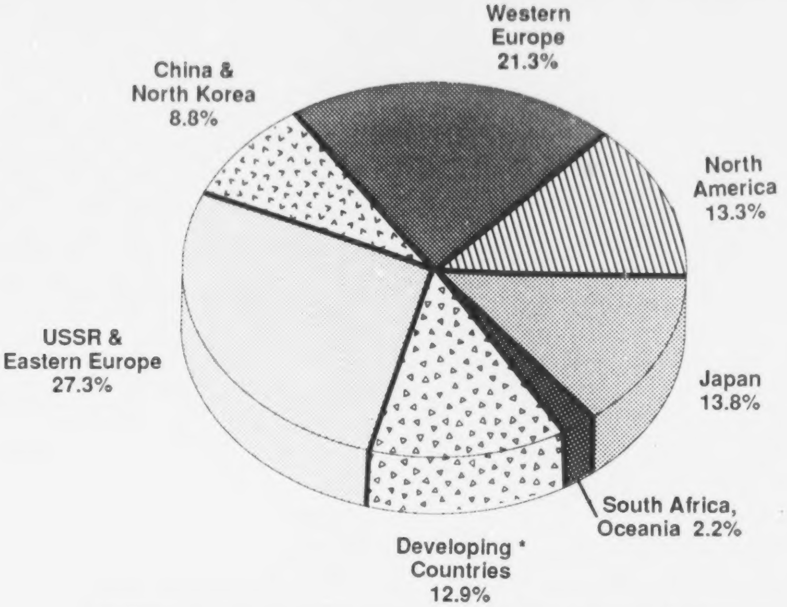
Rank	Net Exports (exports-imports)	Tonnage
1	Japan	16.4
2	Brazil	10.8
3	Belgium-Luxembourg	9.1
4	FR Germany	6.0
5	Republic of Korea	3.6
6	Czechoslovakia	3.5
7	South Africa	2.5
8	France	1.9
9	Romania	1.8
10	Austria	1.8
11	United Kingdom	1.5
12	Turkey	1.2
13	Spain	1.2
14	Poland	1.1
15	Netherlands	1.0

Rank	Net Imports (imports-exports)	Tonnage
1	United States	17.4
2	China	8.9
3	Taiwan (ROC)	3.7
4	Thailand	2.3
5	Italy	2.2
6	Egypt	2.1
7	Hong Kong	1.9
8	India	1.8
9	Singapore	1.5
10	Saudi Arabia	1.4
11	Switzerland	1.4
12	Algeria	1.3
13	USSR	1.1
14	Malaysia	1.0
15	Philippines	1.0

Source: International Iron and Steel Institute, 1990.

DEVELOPING COUNTRIES PRODUCED 12.9% OF THE WORLD'S STEEL IN 1989, AND CONSUMED 15.4% OF THE WORLD'S TOTAL

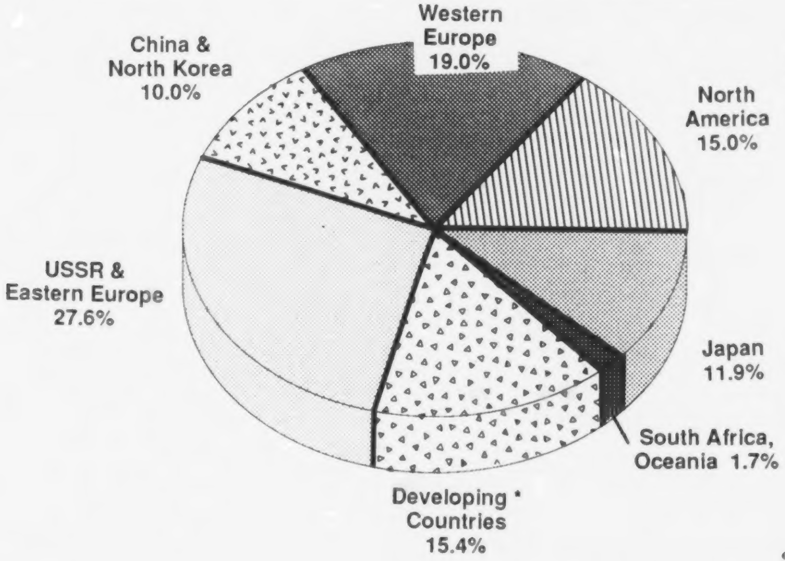
Production



* Developing Countries Totals consist of

Production		Consumption
5.4%	Latin Ameria	3.7%
1.1%	Africa, except South Africa & Middle East	2.6%
6.4%	Asia, except Japan, China, North Korea	9.1%

Consumption



Source: International Iron and Steel Institute. 1990.

SELECTED MEDIA DATA

The following data has been excerpted from United Nations' World Media Handbook, 1990 Edition (UN Department of Public Information. ISBN 92-1-100426-8). Information in the Handbook is provided only for those 67 countries that host United Nations Centres/Services (UNICS).

	Pop.in millions	# of Daily newspapers	Circu-lation per 1000	Radio sets per 1000	TV sets per 1000	Telephone sets per hundred	Illiteracy Rate (Total Pop.)
Argentina	31.5	188	--	645	214	10.3	5.0
Australia	16.4	62	296	1,259	472	55.05	--
Bangladesh	109.6	47	6	40	3.1	0.12	66.9
Brazil	144.4	314	57	365	188	8.81	22.3
Chile	12.7	38	96	335	164	6.40	5.6
Colombia	30.6	31	--	153	102	7.64	11.9
Czech	15.6	27	298	577	281	23.86	--
Egypt	51.5	7	59	313	83	2.79	55.5
El Salvador	5.0	6	--	349	70	2.63	27.9
France	55.8	101	212	896	402	60.80	--
India	818.8	1,334	21	78	6.5	0.53	56.5
Indonesia	175.0	55	18	118	39	0.44	25.9
Iran	53.1	23	22	240	57	3.91	49.2
Italy	57.3	70	96	697	385	46.89	3.0
Japan	122.4	125	562	824	585	55.53	--
Mexico	84.9	312	120	197	117	9.57	9.7
Nicaragua	3.6	4	82	257	59	1.65	13.0
Nigeria	105.5	22	18	162	5.6	0.27	57.6
Philippines	59.5	22	46	134	36	1.51	14.3
Spain	39.1	102	80	295	322	37.92	5.6
Turkey	53.5	457	--	163	165	8.13	25.8
U.K.	56.8	108	414	1,157	534	52.36	--
USA	245.4	1,687	268	2,126	813	76.03	0.5
USSR	283.7	724	422	660	321	9.83	--

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POLICIES FOR REDUCING POVERTY

Some Countries Are Beginning To Improve Economic Opportunities For The Poor and Provide Them With Essential Social Services

The following article is reprinted in its entirety from Finance & Development, September 1990, a publication of The International Monetary Fund and The World Bank. The author is Dominique van de Walle, from Belgium and a member of the team that prepared the World Development Report, 1990. She holds a PhD from the Australian National University and is now a consultant in the Public Economics Division of the Bank.

Recognizing the immense waste of human resources within their economies due to poverty, some developing country governments have begun to change their approaches toward development to include the poor as clearly identified targets of official programs, financed by domestic resources or external aid. The lessons from their successes and failures, captured in the *World Development Report, 1990*, offer some hope for the poorest of the world.

As mentioned in the preceding article by Michael Walton, country experience indicates that poverty is most effectively reduced when domestic development policies stress two key components: a pattern of growth that encourages the efficient use of labor and the provision of social services to the poor. However, some of the poor will not be reached by these policies, and others will remain vulnerable to shocks. A well-targeted system of transfers and safety nets, therefore, is needed in a comprehensive poverty reduction program. A country's development strategy and stage of development, the extent and nature of administrative and physical infrastructure, and the salient characteristics of the poor in each country will determine the precise role and optimal combination of these policies.

Promoting economic opportunities

How can governments encourage growth that fosters the efficient use of the factors owned by the poor? The answer is the first key to long-term poverty reduction. One way is through the price mechanism. Relative prices matter to most of the poor. Increases in the relative price of goods that more intensively use the labor of the poor encourage growth in sectors that employ such labor and so raise the returns to the single most important asset of the world's poor: their capacity for work. The external terms of trade of developing countries, and the net trading position of the poor within those countries can interact powerfully to influence the benefits the poor obtain from the pattern of growth.

But overvalued exchange rates, excessively capital intensive industrialization, and artificially low relative prices of agricultural outputs can severely hamper efforts to reduce poverty, as evidenced by the experience of Ghana in the 1970s, and of Nigeria, Senegal, and Tanzania, more recently. In contrast, Cameroon and Kenya avoided heavy taxation of agriculture and performed comparatively well in terms of growth of agriculture, manufacturing, and per capita GDP.

Infrastructure development has been found to increase the productivity of the rural poor. Improved transport and marketing networks have spurred growth in agriculture and helped develop and diversify the economies of backward areas in many countries. The spread of irrigation and the adoption of high-yielding varieties and other forms of technological progress in Asia and Latin America vastly increased employment opportunities for the poor, and helped stabilize their incomes over the agricultural calendar. In India, Indonesia, and Pakistan, rural wages also rose as a result. However, certain rural development policies may bring far fewer gains to the rural poor than others. For example, agricultural policies favoring large farmers and subsidies to mechanization have had quite opposite effects in Brazil.

A buoyant and secure agricultural sector, in turn, increases the demand for nonfarm goods and services and helps create jobs in nonfarm activities. Bank research indicates that a one dollar increase in agricultural income was linked to an 80-cent increase in incomes from nonfarm sources in certain rural areas of India and Malaysia that had well-developed infrastructures.

Infrastructural development and a supportive policy environment can also promote growth in urban labor demand and hence, wages. Access to low cost public utilities, for example, has been linked to the growth and success of small firms in Colombia and the Republic of Korea. However, licensing regulations and urban planning ordinances can restrict self-employment opportunities for the urban poor and more generally inhibit informal sector activities. Such policies need to be carefully implemented and monitored so as to avoid their adverse effects on the poor.

Participation of the poor. To enhance the ability of the poor to participate in the growth process, it is often necessary to implement policies that provide greater access to resources and opportunities for productive investments. In agriculture-based economies, improved access to land would directly benefit poor households. Although major redistribution of land ownership is not usually feasible politically, smaller land transfers, tenancy, and tax or subsidy reforms have at times improved access along with earning opportunities.

When the poor own land, necessary inputs, such as irrigation, fertilizers, and pesticides, can be made available to expand the productivity of the land. Further, improving poor farmers' access to markets and providing transport, information, and technological innovations suitable for small-scale farming, enables them to respond to economic incentives. A few rural development projects have effectively reached the poor in India, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka, by building local institutions, involving village organizations, and delegating responsibility to participants.

The provision of credit to the poor through innovative and effective channels can aid these policies, but past experience suggests that such interventions often do not reach the poorest or yield reasonable returns. Where these initiatives have worked, such as Bangladesh's Grameen Bank—a nongovernmental institution that provides credit mainly for rural nonfarm enterprises—success has depended both on the scheme's design (Grameen's use of group-based lending) and the ability and concern of its managers.

Social services: investing in people

Investment in human capital is the second key to the long-term reduction of poverty, complementing the policies suggested above for achieving a pattern of growth favorable to the poor. Despite encouraging progress in developing countries at the aggregate level, many of the poor within these countries continue to lack access to even the most basic human services. Policies and earmarked budgets have often failed to reach them because of inefficient spending and biases toward programs that benefit the rich. For example, an estimated average 70 to 85 percent of total health care spending (public and private) in developing countries goes to curative care (mainly for a minority—the better-off urban dwellers). Yet, preventive and community services have been shown to be more effective in reducing morbidity and mortality.

continued ⟶

REDUCING POVERTY continued

The satisfaction of basic needs directly alleviates some of the most severe consequences of poverty. Healthy, well-nourished, and educated individuals obviously have a higher standard of living than sick, hungry, and ignorant ones. They are also more productive and better able to respond to new opportunities. Improved nutrition and health, for instance, increases the time the poor are *able* to work.

Such investments in human capital have other important effects too. The education of mothers is linked to declines in infant and child mortality, as well as improved child nutrition, which, in turn, affects a child's ability to learn and perform at school. Family planning services enable parents to better plan and space births, thereby improving both maternal and child health. In the long run, more education produces acceptance of family planning and lower fertility.

Better access for the poor. Building and developing the necessary physical infrastructure—roads, primary health clinics, and primary schools—is a top priority, particularly in rural areas. Clean water supplies and other basic sanitation and disease control are also critical.

Social sector expansion, however, will not automatically benefit the poor. There must be changes in the priorities, organization, and financing of social services. Social sector reforms initiated in Chile after 1974–75 illustrate this. Expansion coupled with increased targeting to vulnerable groups and decentralization of the health care delivery and elementary school systems resulted in wider coverage of the poor. For selected services, including higher level education and curative care, Chile also introduced greater reliance on cost recovery. As with rural development projects, local community participation in the social sectors is found to be effective in countries as disparate as Bangladesh, Colombia, Nicaragua, and Thailand, and should be encouraged.

To ensure participation of the poor, it is also critical to consider their circumstances. For example, although the long-term benefits of education are perceived by most poor parents, children are indispensable productive assets in the short term (as labor on family farms, for example). Policy instruments may be necessary to improve the incentives for parents to keep children, and particularly female children, in school. The use of payments to parents in one region of Bangladesh increased the proportion of female secondary school students from 27 percent of the total to 44 percent, double the national increase.

Transfers and safety nets

The policies discussed so far are likely to miss some of the poor. The aged and the disabled will rarely participate in the process of future growth, while the full participation of others—poor households in remote and inhospitable regions, or those whose very low wages adjust only slowly—will take time. In addition, the poorest households remain vulnerable to fluctuations in income and shocks caused by events beyond their control.

Targeted transfers can help raise the living standards of those who are missed by other efforts, while a safety net, providing some form of income insurance, can see poor households through short-term stress and calamities. Well-designed policies, broadly categorized as food-based policies, public employment schemes, and social security, can serve these objectives. They represent a crucial complement to the two-part strategy.

The role of food pricing and distribution policies. Since food is the major component of the expenditures of the poor, food-based policies are an obvious way to raise living standards and nutritional well-being, as well as to insure the poor against a sudden fall in real income. Developing countries have experimented with various schemes, including general food subsidies, food rations, food stamps, food distribution policies, and food supplementation schemes. There have been both successes and failures.

Most food-based policies have worked best in urban areas or more developed regions with effective administration and infrastructures. These policies have often failed to reach the rural poor. Jamaica's food stamp program is one of the exceptions. It has been successful at reaching poor and vulnerable groups, due, in part, to a well-developed primary health care system (through which food stamps are distributed) and a sophisticated social welfare administration. Targeting food subsidies can increase cost effectiveness and has been achieved through required attendance at public clinics, as in Jamaica; by subsidizing food staples that are mainly consumed by the poor, such as coarse flour in Egypt; or by locating distribution outlets in poor neighborhoods, as was done in Northeast Brazil and the Philippines.

In remote areas with poor access to markets, direct food distribution is often necessary during crises and to help individuals recover from severe malnutrition. In normal times, supplementary feeding programs can assist vulnerable groups, particularly when administered through existing social infrastructure and combined with complementary health, sanitation, and education interventions involving community participation. The World Bank-assisted Tamil Nadu Integrated Nutrition Program and Tanzania's Iringa Nutrition Program are good examples of such efforts.

Public employment schemes. Carefully designed public employment schemes have proved to be successful at supporting the incomes of the able-bodied poor and their families, particularly in risky agricultural settings. They have been used for famine prevention in India for centuries and in Sub-Saharan Africa during the 1980s, most successfully in Botswana and Cape Verde. In Latin America, Bolivia, Chile, and Peru implemented public works projects to help the poor through structural adjustment.

Public employment programs, providing unskilled work on rural development projects in lean seasons, have often been effective in reaching the poor at relatively low administrative cost. Only the poor tend to find attractive the work and wages offered. In India's Maharashtra State, the Employment Guarantee Scheme guarantees unskilled work in rural areas to anyone who requests it subject to only mild restrictions on feasibility. This has provided valuable insurance to the rural poor, as well as helped develop backward areas of the state. The building and maintenance of infrastructure and the rehabilitation of environmentally degraded lands has served to spur employment creation elsewhere in the economy and facilitated social sector development.

Social security. In many urban areas, and in countries where the formal wage employment sector is large and wide coverage is achievable, social security systems can be effectively used to reduce poverty among the aged poor and those unable to work. This has indeed happened in Chile and Costa Rica. However, broad-based formal social security systems are not yet feasible in most developing countries, and least of all in rural areas. A practical alternative is to target transfers using correlates of poverty and community participation in assessing needs. This approach is used in India's Kerala state, where a pension scheme provides agricultural laborers over 60 with self-reported income below a stipulated level. Local committees help verify applicants' claims.

When properly adapted to each country's situation, and designed to be mutually reinforcing, the above policies could greatly enrich the lives of the poorest people in the world. But good policy ideas are not all that is needed. It will take concerted political and social will and a supportive international environment to attain the reduction of poverty that is possible with the right policies. ■

67 ECONOMIES WITH POPULATIONS OF LESS THAN 2 MILLION EACH PLUS ESTIMATED GNP PER CAPITA, 1988, US DOLLARS

CAUTION: Data for Each Part of This Table Have Been Drawn from Two Sources. Consider the Table as Illustrative, Not Definitive

	Those Economies with Populations Less Than 2 Million	Estimated GNP per capita, 1988 US dollars
Lesotho	1,800,000	410
UAE	1,600,000	15,720
Bhutan	1,600,000	150
Namibia	1,500,000	--
Oman	1,500,000	5,070
Trinidad & Tobago	1,300,000	3,350
Gabon	1,200,000	2,970
Botswana	1,200,000	1,050
Mauritius	1,100,000	1,810
Guinea-Bissau	1,000,000	160
Gambia	900,000	220
Swaziland	800,000	790
Guyana	800,000	410
Fiji	800,000	1,540
Cyprus	700,000	6,260
East Timor	700,000	--
Reunion	600,000	upper-middle
Gaza	600,000	--
Comoros	500,000	440
Bahrain	500,000	6,610
Qatar	500,000	11,610
Macao	500,000	upper-middle
Cape Verde	400,000	680
Djibouti	400,000	lower-middle
Equatorial Guinea	400,000	350
Suriname	400,000	2,450
Luxembourg	400,000	22,600
Malta	400,000	5,050
Brunei	300,000	14,120
Barbados	300,000	5,990
Guadeloupe	300,000	upper-middle
Martinique	300,000	upper-middle
Iceland	300,000	20,160
Solomon Islands	300,000	430
Western Sahara	200,000	--
Maldives	200,000	410
Belize	200,000	1,460
Bahamas	200,000	10,570
Netherlands Antilles	200,000	high
Saint Lucia	200,000	1,540
French Polynesia	200,000	high
New Caledonia	200,000	high
* Pacific Islands	200,000	--
Vanuatu	200,000	820
Western Samoa	200,000	580
Channel Islands	137,000	high
Guam	130,000	high
U.S. Virgin Islands	106,000	high
Seychelles	100,000	3,800
Sao Tome & Principe	100,000	280
Antigua & Barbuda	100,000	2,800
Dominica	100,000	1,650
Grenada	100,000	1,370
St. Vincent & The Grenadines	100,000	1,100
Tonga	97,000	830
French Guiana	88,000	upper-middle
Kiribati	67,000	650
Isle of Man	66,000	high
Aruba	60,000	high
Bermuda	57,000	high
Greenland	55,000	high
Faeroe Islands	47,000	high
Marshall Islands	41,000	high
St. Kitts-Nevis	40,000	2,770
Amerian Samoa	37,000	high
Gibraltar	30,000	upper-middle

* Comprising the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, and the Marshall and the Northern Mariana Islands

Sources of data: Population Reference Bureau, Inc.'s 1990 World Population Data Sheet and The World Bank's 1990 World Development Report.

Three Categories of The World Bank Used in Table Above

lower-middle	= a lower-middle-income economy	$545 to $2,199
upper-middle	= an upper-middle-income economy	$2,200 to $5,999
high	= a high-income economy	$6,000 or more

CONCERNING AMERICA'S FARMS

The text below constitutes the Summary section from The U.S. Farming Sector Entering the 1990's: 12th Annual Report on the Status of Family Farms. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Agriculture Information Bulletin No. 587. Pp. iv and v. The graph and table are from pages 8 and 9.

The U.S. farm sector enters the 1990's in a much improved financial position after the difficulties of the early and mid-1980's. Today's farmers who hope to continue farming into the 21st century, however, must master the technical aspects of farm production and marketing and also understand the implications for their farm businesses of changes in Federal conservation policy, tax policy, credit policy, technology, macroeconomic policy, and agricultural trade policy.

Structure of the U.S. farm sector: The farm recession of the 1980's did not substantially alter the four-decade trend toward fewer, larger, more capital-intensive farms. Small farms dominate numerically, but a few large commercial farms produce most U.S. food and fiber. Almost all U.S. farms are family-owned businesses. The proportion of farms that are financially vulnerable today is half what it was in 1985. Farmland prices have stabilized and are rising in many parts of the United States. Favorable farm financial forecasts for 1990 point to a financially stronger farm sector going into the 1990's.

Commodity programs: Since 1982, the Federal Government has transferred almost $14 billion per year from taxpayers to farmers who grow wheat, rice, feed grains, and cotton. Direct Government payments and net nonrecourse commodity loans represented 5 percent of total U.S. gross cash farm income in 1988, but only about 36 percent of U.S. farmers actually participated in these programs. Participation is highest in the Northern Plains, Corn Belt, and Lake States and among cash grain and cotton producers. The average direct payment per recipient in 1988 ranged from $1,400 for farms with less than $10,000 in annual sales to $56,700 for those with sales of $500,000 or more.

The Food Security Act of 1985 has lowered Federal price support levels and provided export enhancements. These programs have helped the United States recapture some of its previous share of world markets and are reducing future Federal Government budget outlays.

Conservation provisions: The Food Security Act of 1985 explicitly ties agriculture policy to conservation goals and programs. The conservation reserve program (CRP) encourages farmers to remove highly erodible land from production and to plant it in permanent ground cover. By February 1989, farmers had enrolled about 30 million acres in the CRP out of a potential total of 70 million acres of eligible cropland.

The law also withholds price and income support payments and other benefits from farmers who fail to provide a soil conservation plan for their highly erodible cropland or who convert wetlands to cropland. Taken together, these provisions will reduce both potential commodity surpluses and soil erosion problems that could endanger the productivity of the Nation's farmland and environmental quality.

Tax policy: Federal income tax provisions encouraged investment in agriculture as a means of sheltering income for many years. The Tax Reform Act of 1986 reduced the importance of Federal income taxes in investment and production decisions. Thus, future investment decisions will probably be based more on economic returns and less on tax benefits. For some farm commodities, this change should mean reduced investment, lower production, increased product prices, and higher total revenue for producers.

Credit policy: Debt-financed farm expansion during the 1970's and early 1980's contributed to the financial stress that many farms faced in the mid-1980's. Since then, farmers used portions of their Government payments to reduce their debt that peaked at $207 billion in 1983. Farm lenders have also written off bad loans as adjustments to the farm recession conditions of the mid-1980's.

Today's farmers are more cautious about assuming more debt and farm lenders are using more conservative lending policies compared with the late 1970's. Near-term prospects for agricultural credit availability have improved especially for low-risk borrowers. Lenders can satisfy a significant expansion in credit demand by creditworthy farmers. However, with improved efficiency in agricultural credit markets and their fuller integration with national financial markets, farmers will have to compete more with nonfarm borrowers to obtain funds for expansion and operating needs.

Technology developments: New technology resulting from plant and animal research, in concert with economic forces, has changed farm structure. Bovine growth hormone (bGH) and porcine growth hormone (pGH) are biotechnology's research products closest to leaving the laboratory and arriving at the farm. They offer the potential for significantly increased dairy and pork production. More efficient producers will probably benefit most from using these growth hormones, encouraging the trend in U.S. agriculture toward fewer, larger, more capital-intensive farms.

Macroeconomic policy: Domestic and foreign macroeconomic policies increasingly and inescapably affect the profitability of family farms and their likelihood for survival. Throughout the 1980's, the Federal Government ran large budget deficits and the Federal Reserve

continued →

AMERICA'S FARMS continued

maintained a rather tight monetary policy designed to keep inflation in check. This macroeconomic policy resulted in historically high real interest rates and exchange values of the dollar in world markets that in turn encouraged more imports and reduced exports, lowered commodity prices, and raised interest costs. These developments contributed to the mid-1980's farm recession.

Federal moves to reduce the budget deficit and stabilize the economy, in concert with the willingness of major developed nations to bring down the high exchange value of the dollar in international markets, have helped improve the macroeconomic climate in the United States and restore the U.S. farm economy.

Agricultural trade policy: Agricultural protectionism, in which governments intervene in international commodity markets to promote domestic policy goals, has increased around the world. If continued both here and abroad, it carries the risk of escalating conflict and uncertainty in world markets. For the United States, depending heavily on exports, the resulting instability and loss of markets create boom-or-bust cycles in which the economic well-being of less competitive farmers hinges upon the willingness of taxpayers to support domestic farm programs.

The current multilateral trade negotiations recognize for the first time that the relationship between domestic farm policy and agricultural trade policies is legitimately subject to negotiation. The negotiations provide an opportunity to make both domestic and international policies more responsive to world market conditions. If negotiations succeed in reducing trade distortions, U.S. farmers will face a more competitive trading environment, where income will depend more on market factors than on Government payments. ❖

Figure 1
Distribution of farms and sales by sales class, 1987

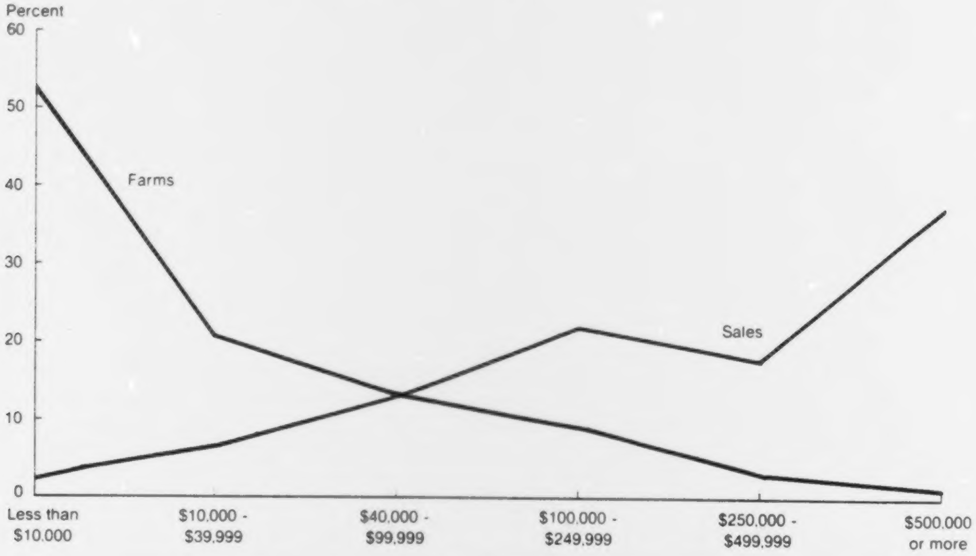


Table 1—Profiles of farms by sales class, 1987

Characteristic	Sales class						
	Less than $10,000	$10,000–$39,999	$40,000–$99,999	$100,000–$249,999	$250,000–$499,999	$500,000 or more	All farms
				Thousand			
Number and size: [1]							
Number of farms	1,139	450	286	201	71	29	2,176
				Percent			
Share of all farms	52.4	20.7	13.2	9.2	3.2	1.3	100
Share of total product sales	2.8	6.6	13.1	22.0	17.9	37.5	100

PROFILES

Recent press reports drawn from a Census Bureau annual report offer a sobering reminder that Third Worlds exist in First World countries, notably the United States, where after years of economic growth, nearly 32 million people remain below the poverty line, and at least 7 million in rural areas still live without a toilet, a sink or running water, many in shacks without windows.

cited in World Development Forum, January 31, 1990

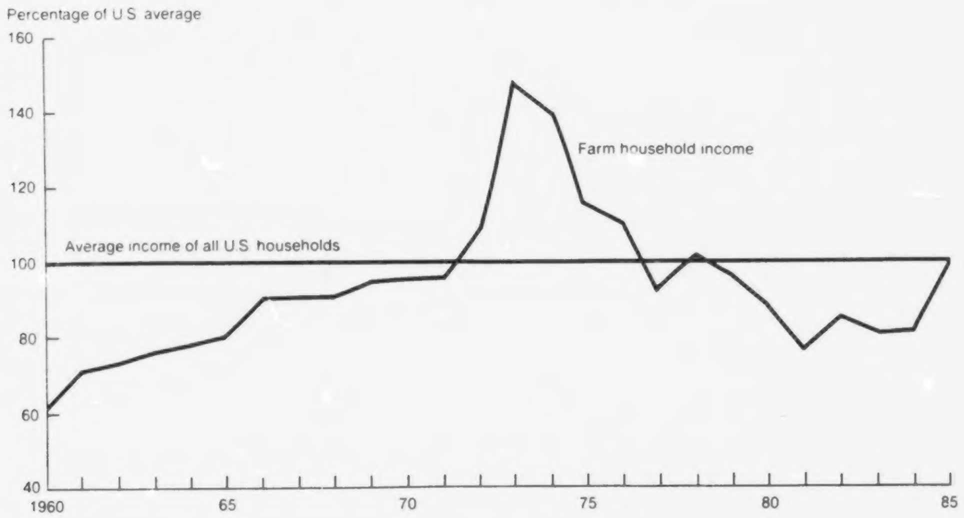
On May 22, 1990, North Yemen (the Yemen Arab Republic) and South Yemen (the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen) merged into a single nation, the Republic of Yemen. The new republic is 207,000 square miles in area, slightly smaller than France (220,688 sq. mi.). Sana, the former northern capital, has become the political capital of the unified state, while the port of Aden, the former southern capital, is expected to be the economic capital.

A Proposed Alternative to Gross National Product (GNP)

According to The Amicus Journal, an economist with the World Bank and a philosophy professor at the School of Theology, Claremont, "believe that GNP as a measure of economic welfare distorts reality. In its place they propose an Index of Sustainable Economic Welfare, which includes such variables as income distribution, the value of unpaid household labor, pollution, loss of farmland, and the external costs of development." Herman Daly, senior economist in the environment department of the World Bank, and Professor John B. Cobb, Jr., of Claremont are coauthors of For the Common Good.

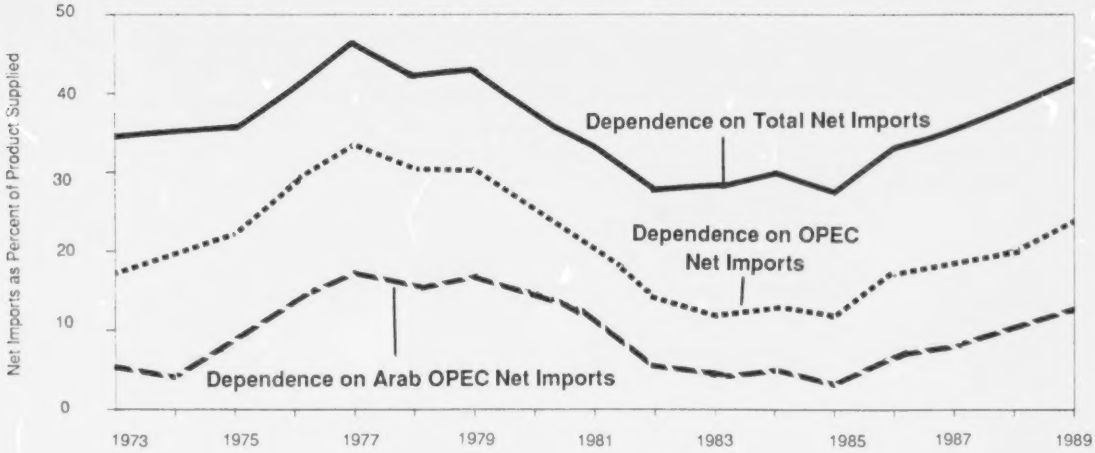
cited in World Development Forum, August 15, 1990

Farm Operator Household Income Compared with U.S. Average



U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Agriculture Information Bulletin No. 587. The U.S. Farming Sector Entering the 1990's: 12th Annual Report on the Status of Family Farms. P. 12.

IN 1989, 42.1% OF THE PRIMARY ENERGY THE U.S. CONSUMED WAS PETROLEUM
41.6% OF THAT PETROLEUM WAS IMPORTED (DOWN FROM A HIGH OF 46.5% IN 1977, BUT THE 6TH INCREASE IN THE LAST SEVEN YEARS)



Net Imports[a] as Percent of U.S. Petroleum Products Supplied

	From Arab OPEC[b] Countries	From All OPEC[c] Countries	From All Countries
1973 Average	5.3 %	17.3 %	34.8 %
1974 Average	4.5	19.7	35.4
1975 Average	8.5	22.0	35.8
1976 Average	13.9	29.0	40.6
1977 Average	17.3	33.6	46.5
1978 Average	15.7	30.5	42.5
1979 Average	16.5	30.4	43.1
1980 Average	14.9	25.2	37.3
1981 Average	11.5	20.6	33.6
1982 Average	5.6	14.0	28.1
1983 Average	4.1	12.1	28.3
1984 Average	5.2	13.0	30.0
1985 Average	3.0	11.6	27.3
1986 Average	7.1	17.4	33.4
1987 Average	7.6	18.3	35.5
1988 Average	10.6	20.3	38.1
1989 Average	12.3	23.8	41.6

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Monthly Energy Review, April 1990. Table 1.4 p. 7 and Figure 1.7 & Table 1.8 p. 13.

PAN AMERICAN HEALTH ORGANIZATION SAYS VIOLENCE IS A GROWING PUBLIC HEALTH PROBLEM IN THE REGION

The following are the opening paragraphs of the 16-page Pan American Health Organization's Epidemiological Bulletin, Vol. 11, No. 2, 1990.

Several of the health indicators that reflect the day-to-day reality of the Region have attested to a troubling increase, a wide range of forms, and identifiable trends in the distribution of violence. Its negative impact on the quality of life and living conditions for broad sectors of the population, its high toll in terms of lives coupled with the fact that it is concentrated in the teen-age and young adult population, its consequent social and economic cost, and the added burden that it places on health services with already stretched resources make violence one of the most serious of the public health problems in the Region.

Child abuse, the rape and battering of women, homicide and suicide rates, the floods of refugees, the numbers of people disabled in different ways by war and internal and intercountry aggression are some of the indicators that are being observed and quantified and are leading to the conclusion that the problem of violence is growing worse and becoming differentiated in terms of its causes, the subregions and social groups affected, the forms in which it is manifested, and its personal, institutional, and collective consequences.

In their concern over these trends, both WHO and PAHO have been registering and disseminating information on the problem. They have emphasized the need to understand it better through additional in-depth and long-term studies, and they have called society's attention to ways of dealing with it and of working to alter the conditions that continue to contribute to violence and cause it to increase.

Understanding the problem of violence involves a number of different disciplines: law, anthropology, sociology, economics, clinical medicine, epidemiology, surgery, planning and administration, psychiatry, rehabilitation. All these fields need to shore up their research efforts, their rational approach, their available technology, and their sense of day-to-day commitment if they are to address the situation and contribute to an adequate social response. As background for a review of the available data, it is well to reflect for a moment on what is meant by violence.

Violence involves the use of physical strength or psychological or moral coercion by an individual or group against itself, objects, or another person or group of persons which results in destruction or damage to the object or in infringement or violation of any of the established rights of the victim or victims. Such use of force usually stems from an intention to maintain, modify, or destroy a specific order of things or values. It is fostered by the existence of great inequities in terms of these rights, which means that violence is an essentially human activity of man as the member of a given society. This is why the context, the intensity, and the forms of violence will change from one moment to another, under different conditions, and in different social settings. Physical violence is the most obvious form of aggression, since it is manifested in visible injury and is a direct cause of disability and death. Its extreme and most devastating expression is war in all its forms, which is the cause of extensive damage to health, the uprooting of large groups of people, and in general a lowering of the quality of life.

It is also important to emphasize that violence is more than the immediately observable, usually tragic, violent act. It is the entire set of conditions that lead up to it, the forms in which it is manifested, the facts of this manifestation, and the direct and indirect consequences that involve both the perpetrator and the victim. In other words, violence is a process and not an isolated act, and hence there are different types, moments, forms, and intensities of violence. An approach to the problem, then, involves consideration of its causes, its different modalities, its concrete forms of expression, its agents, its victims, its consequences, and its implications. A typology of violence can be established according to the different causes (political, racial, sexual); forms of expression (suicide, homicide, torture, disappearance, abduction); severity (lethal, with sequelae, minor); the main groups affected (workers, women, children, ethnic groups, minorities); the weapon or instrument used (firearm, blade, or chemical, nuclear, or biological weapon); and the principal damage inflicted (physical, psychological). ◆

INCOME CHANGES IN AMERICAN FAMILIES IN THE 1980s

The material on this page and on the next two pages has been excerpted and reprinted with permission of the author, Katharine L. Bradbury, Assistant Vice President and Economist, Federal Reserve Bank of Boston. Ms. Bradbury's 16-page article appeared in the July/August 1990 issue of her bank's New England Economic Review. The text constitutes her Summary and Conclusions.

III. Summary and Conclusions

Most families made significant income gains in the 1980s as the national economy expanded. Some families, however, did not participate fully in the general growth. In the early part of the decade, job-related earnings weakened for low-income families more than for those with higher incomes, and interest and dividend income expanded faster for high-income families than for those lower on the income scale. As the expansion progressed in the latter half of the decade, families at all income levels made gains, but the poor did not recover to their previous position. Average income of nonelderly families in the two lowest income quintiles declined over the 1979–88 period, while higher-income families enjoyed income growth. As a result, the family income distribution became more unequal. Why did the bottom of the income distribution fail to keep pace?

Losing ground were young families, families with key workers unemployed, and those with poorly educated family heads. The biggest gainers were families with jobs, preferably full-time, the more the better, and especially in manufacturing. Also gaining were families with no children, husband-wife families, and highly educated families.

Table 4
Income and Demographic Characteristics of Nonelderly Families
Percent

	1979				1988			
		Percentage in				Percentage in		
Family Type	Percent of nonelderly families (1)	Poorest Quintile (2)	Middle Three Quintiles (3)	Richest Quintile (4)	Percent of nonelderly families (5)	Poorest Quintile (6)	Middle Three Quintiles (7)	Richest Quintile (8)
All nonelderly families	100.0	20.0	60.0	20.0	100.0	20.0	60.0	20.0
Age of head								
Under 25	7.5	40.8	57.3	1.9	5.4	48.8	48.3	2.9
25–34	28.1	22.4	66.1	11.5	27.3	24.8	64.0	11.1
35–44	24.2	16.3	60.6	23.1	29.5	15.7	61.0	23.4
45–54	21.3	14.6	54.7	30.7	20.5	13.6	56.4	30.0
55–64	18.9	18.9	57.2	23.8	17.2	18.4	59.5	22.1
Headship								
Husband-wife	82.5	13.1	63.7	23.2	78.6	11.9	63.9	24.2
Female head, NSP	14.7	57.3	40.1	2.7	17.0	54.8	41.6	3.6
Male head, NSP	2.8	27.9	56.5	15.6	4.4	29.1	60.1	10.8
Presence of children								
Fam. with children	63.0	22.8	59.5	17.1	60.9	23.9	59.4	16.7
Fam. w/no children	37.0	15.2	60.9	23.9	39.1	13.9	60.8	25.2
Education of head (age 25 and over)								
Not finished high school	24.1	36.4	55.3	8.3	17.6	43.0	51.7	5.3
Finished high school, no college	31.4	18.8	65.6	15.6	33.1	20.9	66.7	12.4
Some college, not finished	17.7	14.5	65.3	20.2	20.4	14.5	66.5	19.0
Finished college	19.2	5.7	51.2	43.1	23.4	5.2	50.5	44.4

Notes: Nonelderly families are headed by someone under age 65. NSP = no spouse present
Source: See Table 1.

continued ↗

A critical thread in these lists is employment. As the economy expanded, families without workers were not carried along. Earnings comprise the bulk of family income, but the importance of employment does not simply reflect burgeoning earned income and a corresponding increase in family income for those with a high share of income from earnings.[25] First, earnings grew faster than average for earners in high-income families. This was especially true of primary female earnings. Second, families with two earners made faster gains than families with one (or none), and high-income families had more earners than families with lower incomes. Third, increases in work effort during the decade seem to have been a key factor. Changes in labor force participation were not proportional to rates of labor force participation at the beginning of the period. Labor force participation rates of wives in low-income families were moderately higher in 1988 than in 1979, but wives' participation rates for high-income families in 1988 were much higher than in 1979 (recall Table 7). Similarly, female-headed families made more modest income gains than husband-wife families because the labor force participation rates of wives rose much faster than participation rates of female heads.

Table 5

Average Income from Each Source, by Quintile, Nonelderly Families

Year and Source of Income	All Families		Poorest Quintile	Middle Three Quintiles	Richest Quintile
	Average Income	Percent of Total			
1979					
Wages and salaries	$30,400	82.0	$ 6,550	$29,050	$58,350
Other earnings	2,750	7.4	550	1,950	7,250
Interest and dividends	1,400	3.8	200	750	4,550
Retirement income	1,400	3.8	1,350	1,250	1,850
Transfers	1,100	3.0	1,750	950	950
Total	37,050	100.0	10,450	34,000	72,950
1984					
Wages and salaries	30,150	81.9	5,050	27,800	62,400
Other earnings	2,300	6.3	300	1,650	6,400
Interest and dividends	1,850	5.0	200	1,000	6,100
Retirement income	1,400	3.8	1,100	1,400	1,800
Transfers	1,050	2.9	1,750	900	900
Total	36,800	100.0	8,450	32,750	77,550
1988					
Wages and salaries	32,600	82.2	5,600	29,850	67,750
Other earnings	2,700	6.8	500	1,950	7,050
Interest and dividends	1,650	4.2	200	950	5,300
Retirement income	1,550	3.9	1,200	1,450	2,200
Transfers	1,100	2.8	1,600	1,000	1,000
Total	39,700	100.0	9,150	35,250	83,400

Income sources defined as follows:

Wages and salaries—wage and salary earnings

Other earnings—all earned income except wages and salaries, including self-employment income

Interest and dividends—interest, dividends, and net rental income

Retirement income—social security, SSI, and private, military, and government pensions

Transfers—public assistance, welfare, veterans' payments, and child support

Notes: Parts may not sum to totals because of rounding. Nonelderly families are headed by someone under age 65. Incomes are in constant 1988 dollars, as defined by CPI-U-X1, and rounded to nearest $50.

Source: See Table 1.

continued →

INCOME CHANGES IN AMERICAN FAMILIES continued

Increased family work effort, of course, clouds the translation of family income into family well-being. But if slow productivity growth continues to keep a lid on real wage growth and the wage distribution continues to become more unequal, a critical question for family income prospects may be how much more women's labor force participation rates can or will rise.

A notable exception to the importance of employment was the elderly, who are generally retired from the labor market, but who moved up the income ladder in striking fashion in the 1980s. They benefited from continuing federal policies aimed at maintaining their living standards and also from holding savings, the returns on which grew apace in the decade.[26] By contrast, non-retirement transfer income declined over the period for low-income families.

The employment link sheds little light on why families without children would move ahead, except perhaps that they have more time available for market work, or why the young fared so poorly. The young, it turns out, experienced a sizable decline in labor force participation rates in the 1980s. Studies that have found early labor market experience to be a critical determinant of lifetime job prospects certainly heighten concern about the currently young cohort's future.[27]

In summary, for all families combined and for most types of families, the rich got richer and the poor got poorer. The shift was especially pronounced for family heads with high educational attainment as compared to low. While reinforced marginally by changes in the distribution of interest and dividends, the increase in inequality was largely attributable to changes in family earnings—the earnings of high-income families rose while the earnings of low-income families declined. High-income families' earnings rose because of steep increases in the labor force participation of wives as well as growth in earnings per worker, whether male or female. Low-income families experienced declines in primary male earnings. Thus the families that benefited most from the good times of the 1980s were those with the most earners and the most highly paid earners. A corollary is that families with less access to the rewards of market work (with the exception of the elderly) fell behind. ❖

Table 10

Earnings of Family Members (Nonelderly Families)

	Average Total Family Income	Average Family Earnings			Percent of Families with Earnings of			Average Earnings for Those with Earnings	
Year and Family Type	(1)	Total (2)	Primary Male (3)	Primary Female (4)	Primary Male (5)	Primary Female (6)	Other Member (7)	Primary Male (8)	Primary Female (9)
1979 All Families	$37,050	$33,150	$23,200	$ 7,250	80	63	27	$29,000	$11,550
Poorest Quintile	10,450	7,100	3,900	2,700	45	47	15	8,600	5,750
Middle Three Quintiles	33,950	31,000	21,850	7,100	86	66	25	25,400	10,800
Richest Quintile	72,950	65,600	46,550	12,250	96	69	46	48,250	17,650
Husband-Wife Families	40,500	37,150	27,400	7,100	94	63	25	29,200	11,200
Female-Headed Families	18,650	13,450	0	9,600	0	72	39	na	13,350
1984 All Families	36,800	32,450	21,750	8,200	77	65	27	28,350	12,650
Poorest Quintile	8,450	5,350	2,600	2,350	40	44	15	6,400	5,300
Middle Three Quintiles	32,750	29,450	19,600	7,900	83	68	26	23,700	11,550
Richest Quintile	77,550	68,800	47,650	15,000	95	75	43	49,950	20,100
Husband-Wife Families	40,900	37,050	26,250	8,300	92	67	24	28,550	12,400
Female-Headed Families	17,950	13,350	0	9,700	0	70	38	na	13,850
1988 All Families	39,700	35,300	22,800	9,800	76	69	27	29,850	14,250
Poorest Quintile	9,150	6,100	2,950	2,650	39	48	16	7,550	5,500
Middle Three Quintiles	35,250	31,850	20,400	9,250	83	72	26	24,700	12,850
Richest Quintile	83,400	74,800	49,800	18,550	95	80	40	52,250	23,300
Husband-Wife Families	44,550	40,450	27,900	10,150	92	72	23	30,200	14,150
Female-Headed Families	19,250	14,950	0	10,750	0	73	38	na	14,700

Note: Nonelderly families are headed by someone under age 65. Primary male is husband or male head (no wife present); primary female is wife or female head (no husband present); other member is any other family member. All incomes are in constant 1988 dollars, as defined by CPI-U-X1, and rounded to nearest $50. Female-headed families have no husband present. na = not applicable

Source: See Table 1.

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DOLLAR GAP BETWEEN AMERICAN RICH AND ALL OTHERS BIGGER THAN EVER.

Los Angeles - The richest one percent of American families own more than 40 percent of the net worth owned by all American families and the gap between the most wealthy and the rest of the population is bigger than ever, according to UCLA sociologist Maurice Zeitlin.

Zeitlin is the author of a new book, "The Large Corporation and Contemporary Classes" [300 pages. 1989. Rutgers University Press], which contains a comprehensive analysis of the distribution of wealth, income and taxes in America.

"Through all the tumultuous changes over the past 130 years - the Civil War and the emancipation of the slaves, the Great Depression, the New Deal, progressive taxation, World Wars I and II - the class at the tip of the top has held on to everything it had." Zeitlin said. "The richest of the rich owned America in the 19th century and they own it now.

"Indeed, they own a lot more of the wealth today. The share of wealth owned by the families of the 'super rich' - the richest 0.5 percent - rose drastically in the last 20 years, at the expense of the rest of us," he said. "The 'super rich' own 15.3 percent of the new value of all real estate and 35.6 percent of the commercial real estate, 46.5 percent of the value of all corporate stock and 77 percent of the value of the trust assets owned by all families.

"In all, the richest one percent of the families in the United States own 20 percent of all real estate and more than 40 percent of commercial real estate, 60 percent of the corporate stock, and more than 80 percent of total trust assets," Zeitlin wrote.

"Summed up, the richest one percent of families own 41.8 percent of everything owned by all American families. The bottom half of all American families combined own roughly three cents of every dollar's worth of all the wealth in the country.

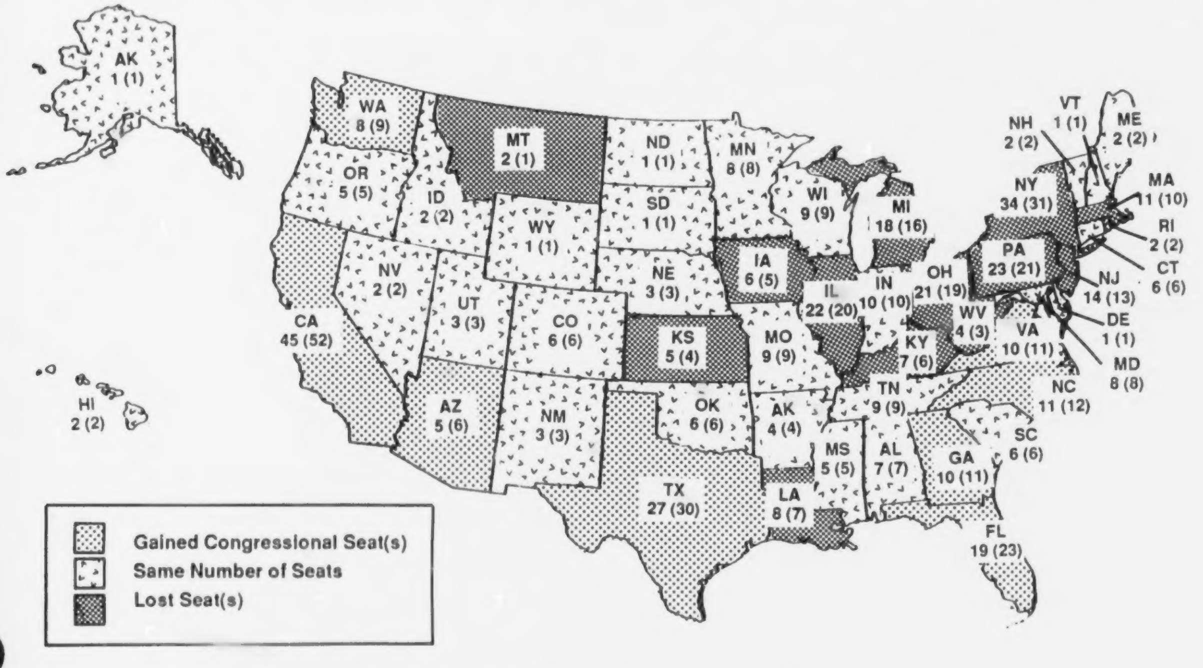
Zeitlin's book covers a wide range of issues on classes and class relations, from the impact of class and poverty on the death rates of American soldiers in Vietnam to questions about ownership and control of large corporations to the origins and consequences of revolution in Cuba and Chile.

Source: University of California, UC Clip Sheet, March 20, 1990.

THE POLITICAL EFFECTS OF POPULATION SHIFTS

The Probable Shifts In Congressional Seats

-- Based on the Census Bureau's preliminary population figures for 1990 --


AK 1 (1)
WA 8 (9)
MT 2 (1)
ND 1 (1)
MN 8 (8)
OR 5 (5)
ID 2 (2)
WY 1 (1)
SD 1 (1)
WI 9 (9)
MI 18 (16)
NV 2 (2)
UT 3 (3)
NE 3 (3)
IA 6 (5)
IL 22 (20)
IN 10 (10)
OH 21 (19)
CA 45 (52)
CO 6 (6)
KS 5 (4)
MO 9 (9)
KY 7 (6)
WV 4 (3)
VA 10 (11)
AZ 5 (6)
NM 3 (3)
OK 6 (6)
AK 4 (4)
TN 9 (9)
NC 11 (12)
HI 2 (2)
MS 5 (5)
AL 7 (7)
GA 10 (11)
SC 6 (6)
TX 27 (30)
LA 8 (7)
FL 19 (23)
VT 1 (1)
NH 2 (2)
ME 2 (2)
MA 11 (10)
NY 34 (31)
RI 2 (2)
PA 23 (21)
CT 6 (6)
NJ 14 (13)
DE 1 (1)
MD 8 (8)
▨ Gained Congressional Seat(s)
☐ Same Number of Seats
■ Lost Seat(s)

Figures after state names are the current number of Congressional representatives and (the estimated new number).

Each state has a vote in the Electoral College equal to the number of its representatives plus two.

In the House of Representatives, Puerto Rico has a non-voting Resident Commissioner. Each of the District of Columbia, the Virgin Islands, Guam, and American Samoa has a non-voting delegate.

Preliminary State-By-State Rankings

State	Preliminary Population for 1990			State	Preliminary Population for 1990			State	Preliminary Population for 1990		
1	CA	29,279,000	+23.7%	18	TN	4,822,134	+ 5.0%	35	WV	1,782,958	- 8.6&
2	NY	17,627,000	+ 0.4%	19	MD	4,733,000	+12.2%	36	UT	1,711,117	+17.1%
3	TX	16,825,000	+11.8%	20	MN	4,358,864	+ 6.9%	37	NE	1,572,503	+ 0.2%
4	FL	12,775,000	+31.1%	21	LA	4,180,831	- 0.6%	38	NM	1,490,381	+14.4%
5	PA	11,764,000	- 0.8%	22	AL	3,984,000	+ 2.3%	39	ME	1,218,053	+ 8.3%
6	IL	11,325,000	- 0.9%	23	KY	3,665,220	+ 0.1%	40	NV	1,193,000	+49.1%
7	OH	10,778,000	- 0.2%	24	AZ	3,619,000	+33.1%	41	NH	1,103,163	+19.8%
8	MI	9,179,000	- 0.9%	25	PR*	3,599,258	+12.6%	42	HI	1,095,000	+13.5%
9	NJ	7,617,418	+ 3.4%	26	SC	3,407,000	+9.1%	43	ID	1,003,558	+ 6.3%
10	NC	6,553,000	+11.4%	27	CO	3,272,000	+13.2%	44	RI	988,609	+ 4.4%
11	GA	6,387,000	+16.9%	28	CT	3,226,929	+ 3.8%	45	MT	794,329	+ 0.9%
12	VA	6,128,000	+14.6%	29	OK	3,124,000	+ 3.3%	46	SD	693,294	+ 0.3%
13	MA	5,928,000	+ 3.3%	30	OR	2,828,214	+ 7.4%	47	DE	658,031	+10.8%
14	IN	5,499,000	+ 0.2%	31	IA	2,766,658	- 5.1%	48	ND	634,223	- 2.9%
15	MO	5,079,385	+ 3.3%	32	MS	2,534,814	+ 0.5%	49	DC	575,000	- 9.9%
16	WI	4,869,640	+ 3.5%	33	KS	2,467,000	+ 4.4%	50	VT	560,029	+ 9.6%
17	WA	4,827,000	+16.8%	34	AR	2,337,395	+ 2.2%	51	AK	546,000	+35.8%
								52	WY	449,905	- 4.3%

* Puerto Rico

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

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THE SPRATLY ISLANDS: POSSIBLE LARGE OFFSHORE OIL DEPOSITS

Spratly Islands, group of reefs in the South China Sea, located midway between Vietnam and the Philippines and claimed by several countries. Of the 12 main islets, the largest is the 90-ac (36-ha) Itu Aba. Another, called Spratly Island or Storm Island, measures 900 ft by 1,500 ft(275 m by 450 m). Turtles and seabirds are the only permanent inhabitants.

Before 1970 the main significance attached to the islands was their strategic location. France held them between 1933 and 1939. During World War II Japan occupied the archipelago and developed it as a submarine base. After the war China established a garrison on Itu Aba, which the Chinese Nationalists maintained after their exile to Taiwan. When Japan renounced its claim to the islands in 1951, Taiwan, mainland China, and Vietnam all declared themselves the rightful owners, and the Philippines added a claim based on proximity in 1955.

In the 1970's the prospect of large offshore oil deposits brought renewed interest in the islands. South Vietnam announced the incorporation of the group into Phouc Tuy province in 1973 and let contracts to foreign companies to explore for oil. When China reacted by asserting its claim to the Spratlys, as well as claiming and occupying the Paracels to the north, South Vietnam occupied three of the Spratly Islands (including Spratly Island itself) to forestall a Chinese occupation. Taiwanese troops remained on Itu Aba. The Philippines then moved forces onto seven of the remaining islets, built an airstrip (1976) on Pagasa Island, and announced plans to construct a fishing harbour and fish refrigeration plant. By the early 1980s, Vietnam, China, Taiwan, Malaysia (with its occupation of Turumbu Layang-Layang reef [June 1983]) and the Philippines all had conflicting claims to the Spratlys, supported (except in the case of China) by garrisons on various islands.

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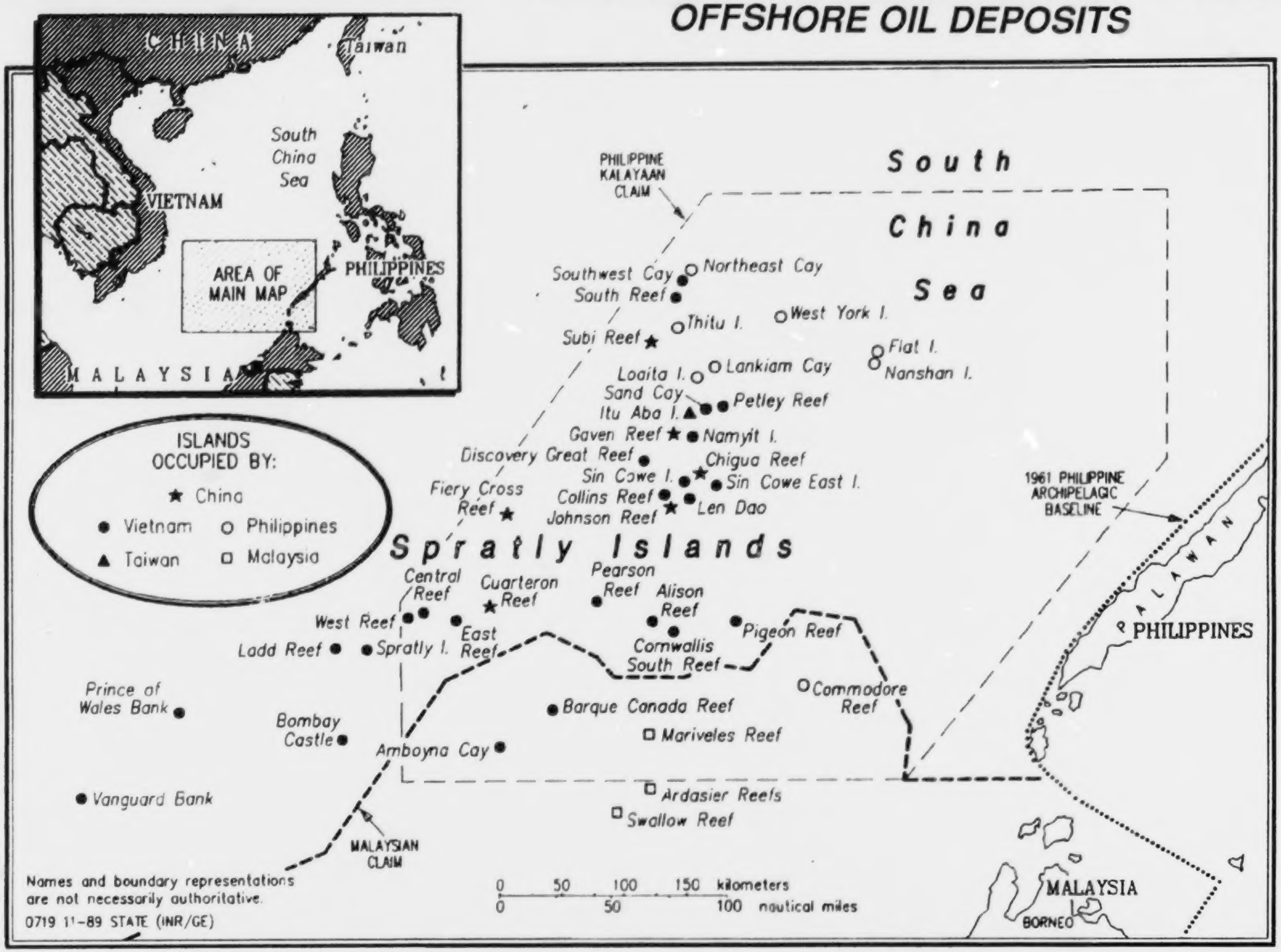
continued →

THE SPRATLY ISLANDS: POSSIBLE LARGE OFFSHORE OIL DEPOSITS


CHINA
Taiwan
South China Sea
VIETNAM
AREA OF MAIN MAP
PHILIPPINES
MALAYSIA
ISLANDS OCCUPIED BY:
★ China
● Vietnam
○ Philippines
▲ Taiwan
□ Malaysia
PHILIPPINE KALAYAAN CLAIM
South China Sea
Southwest Cay
Northeast Cay
South Reef
Thitu I.
West York I.
Subi Reef
Flat I.
Nanshan I.
Loaita I.
Lankiam Cay
Sand Cay
Petley Reef
Itu Aba I.
Gaven Reef
Namyit I.
Discovery Great Reef
Chigua Reef
Sin Cowe I.
Sin Cowe East I.
Fiery Cross Reef
Collins Reef
Len Dao
Johnson Reef
1961 PHILIPPINE ARCHIPELAGIC BASELINE
Spratly Islands
Central Reef
Cuarteron Reef
Pearson Reef
Alison Reef
West Reef
East Reef
Pigeon Reef
Ladd Reef
Spratly I.
Cornwallis South Reef
PALAWAN
PHILIPPINES
Prince of Wales Bank
Commodore Reef
Barque Canada Reef
Bombay Castle
Mariveles Reef
Amboyna Cay
Vanguard Bank
Ardasier Reefs
Swallow Reef
MALAYSIAN CLAIM
MALAYSIA
BORNEO
0 50 100 150 kilometers
0 50 100 nautical miles
Names and boundary representations are not necessarily authoritative.
0719 11-89 STATE (INR/GE)

Source: U.S. Department of State. Office of the Geographer. Geographic Notes, No. 11, March 1, 1990. P.31.

CONCERNING MAP SCALES

Department of the Interior
U.S. Geological Survey
Earth Science
Information Center (ESIC)

To be most useful, a map must show locations and distances accurately on a sheet of paper of convenient size. This means that everything included in the map—ground area, distance, rivers, lakes, roads, and so on—must be shown proportionately smaller than it really is. The proportion chosen for a particular map is its scale.

Large Is Small

Simply defined, scale is the relationship between distance on the map and distance on the ground. A map scale might be given in a drawing (a graphic scale), but it usually is given as a fraction or a ratio—1/10,000 or 1:10,000.

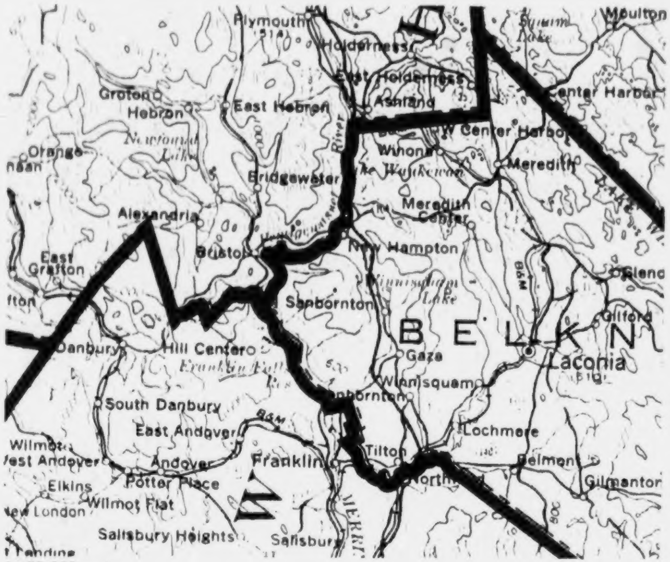
These "representative fraction" scales mean that one unit of measurement on the map—1 inch or 1 centimeter—represents 10,000 of the same units on the ground. If the scale were 1:63,360, for instance, then 1 inch on the map would represent 63,360 inches or 1 mile on the ground (63,360 inches divided by 12 inches = 5,280 feet or 1 mile). The first number (map distance) is always 1. The second number (ground distance) is different for each scale; the larger this second number is, the smaller the scale of the map.

"The larger the number, the smaller the scale" sounds confusing, but it is easy to understand. A map of an area 100 miles long by 100 miles wide drawn at a scale of 1:63,360 would be more than 8 feet square! To make this map a more convenient size, either the scale used or the amount of area included must be reduced.

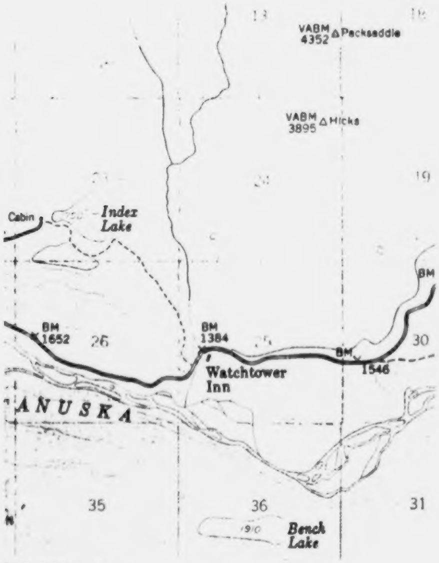
If the scale is reduced to 1:316,800, then 1 inch on the map represents 5 miles on the ground, and an area 100 miles square can be mapped on a sheet less than 2 feet square (100 miles at 5 miles/inch equals 20 inches, or 1.66 feet). On the other hand, if the original 1:63,360 scale is used but the mapped area is reduced to 20 miles square, the resulting map will also be less than 2 feet square.

Such maps would be much handier. But would they be more useful? In the small-scale map (1:316,800), there is less room; therefore, everything must be drawn smaller, and some landmarks must be left out altogether. On the other hand, the larger scale map (1:63,360) permits more detail, but it also covers much less ground.

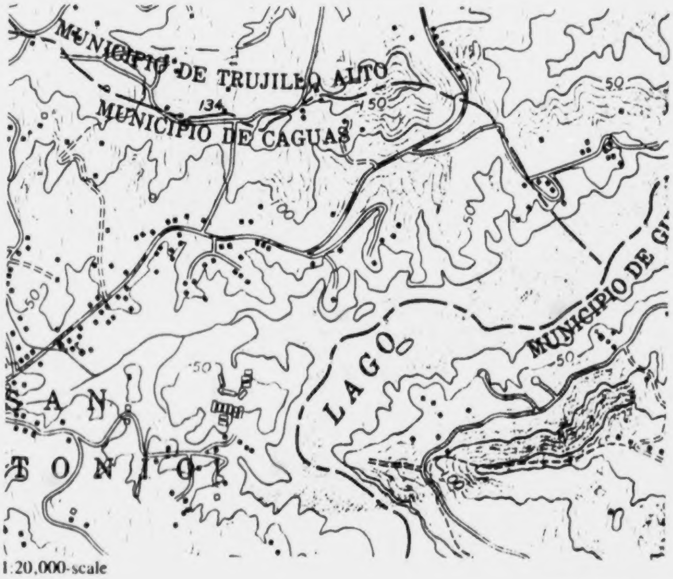
Many areas have been mapped at different scales. When choosing a map—that is, when


Plymouth
Holderness
East Holderness
Ashland
Groton
Hebron
East Hebron
Center Harbor
W Center Harbor
Orange
Whona
Meredith
Bridgewater
Alexandria
Meredith Center
Bristol
New Hampton
East Grafton
Sanbornton
Gilford
Danbury
Hill Center
B E L K N
Gaza
Laconia
Winnisquam
South Danbury
East Andover
Lochmere
Wilmot
Andover
Franklin
Tilton
Belmont
Elkins
Potter Place
Gilmanton
New London
Wilmot Flat
Salisbury Heights
Salisbury

1:500,000-scale


VABM 4352 Packsaddle
VABM 3895 Hicks
Cabin
Index Lake
BM
BM 1652
26
BM 1384
BM
30
1546
Watchtower Inn
ANUSKA
35
36
31
Bench Lake

1:63,360-scale


MUNICIPIO DE TRUJILLO ALTO
134
MUNICIPIO DE CAGUAS
150
50
100
LAGO
MUNICIPIO DE GU
SAN
TONIO

1:20,000-scale

continued →

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

MAP SCALES continued

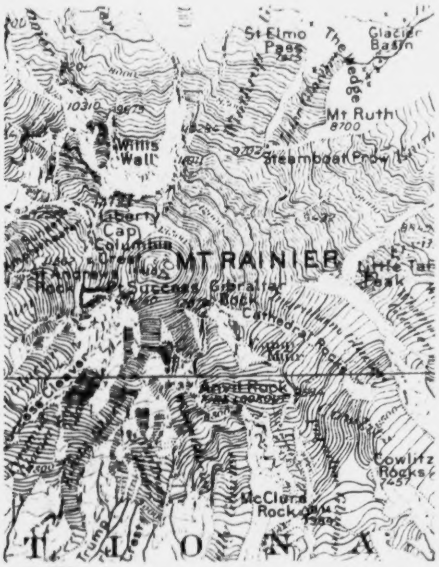
choosing a scale—the most important consideration is its intended use. A town engineer, for instance, may need a very detailed map in order to precisely locate house lots, power and water lines, and streets and alleys in a community. A commonly used scale for this purpose is 1:600 (1 inch on the map represents 50 feet on the ground). This scale is so large that many features—such as buildings, roads, railroad tracks—that are usually represented on smaller scale maps by symbols can be drawn to scale.

U.S. Geological Survey Scales

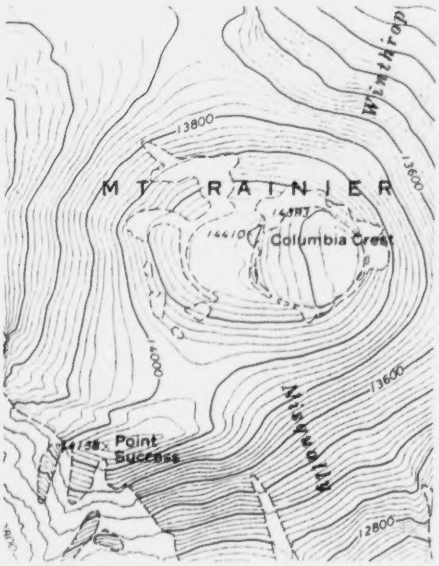
The U.S. Geological Survey publishes maps at various scales. The scale used for most U.S. topographic mapping is 1:24,000. Maps published at this scale cover 7.5 minutes of latitude and 7.5 minutes of longitude; they are commonly called "7.5-minute quadrangle" maps. Map coverage for the United States is planned at this scale, except for Puerto Rico, which is mapped at 1:20,000 and 1:30,000, and a few States that will be mapped at 1:25,000. Most of Alaska has been mapped at 1:63,360, with some populated areas also mapped at 1:24,000 and 1:25,000.

The 1:24,000 scale is fairly large. A map at this scale provides detailed information about the natural and manmade features of an area, including the locations of important buildings and most campgrounds, caves, ski lifts, watermills, and even drive-in theaters. Footbridges, drawbridges, fence lines, private roads, and changes in the number of lanes in a road are also shown at this scale. They would be omitted, usually, from maps in the 1:50,000 to 1:100,000 scale range; these maps cover more area while retaining a reasonable level of detail. Maps at these scales most often use the 15-minute or 30-by-60 minute quadrangle formats.

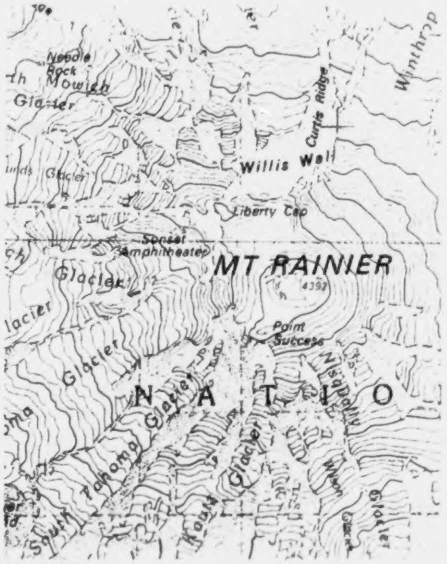
Small-scale maps (1:250,000 and smaller) show large areas on a single map sheet, but details are limited to major features—boundaries, State parks, airports, major roads, and railroads.


St Elmo Pass
Glacier Basin
The Wedge
Mt Ruth
8700
Willis Wall
Steamboat Prow
Liberty Cap
Columbia Crest
MT RAINIER
St Andrews Rock
Success
Gibraltar Rock
Little Tahoma Peak
Cathedral Rocks
Anvil Rock
Cowlitz Rocks
McClure Rock
T I O N A

1:125,000-scale


Winthrop
13800
13600
MT RAINIER
14410
Columbia Crest
Point Success
Nisqually
12800

1:24,000-scale


Winthrop
Mowich
Glacier
Curtis Ridge
Willis Wall
Liberty Cap
Sunset Amphitheater
MT RAINIER
Point Success
Nisqually
N A T I O
South Tahoma Glacier
Kautz Glacier

1:100,000-scale

THE 159 MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The population figures shown below are estimates for mid-year 1990, as supplied by Population Reference Bureau, Inc. in its 1990 World Population Data Sheet.

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Afghanistan	15,900,000	Kabul
Albania	3,300,000	Tiranë
Algeria	25,600,000	Algiers
Angola	8,500,000	Luanda
Antigua & Barbuda	100,000	St. Johns
Argentina	32,300,000	Buenos Aires
Australia	17,100,000	Canberra
Austria	7,600,000	Vienna
Bahamas	200,000	Nassau
Bahrain	500,000	Manama
Bangladesh	114,800,000	Dacca
Barbados	300,000	Bridgetown
Belgium	9,900,000	Brussels
Belize	200,000	Belmopan
Benin	4,700,000	Porto-Novo
Bhutan	1,600,000	Thimphu
Bolivia	7,300,000	Sucre
Botswana	1,200,000	Gaborone
Brazil	150,400,000	Brasilia
Brunei Darussala Begawan	300,000	Bandar Seri
Bulgaria	8,900,000	Sofia
Burkina Faso	9,100,000	Ouagadougou
Burundi	5,600,000	Bujumbura
Byelorussia (1988)	10,141,000(a)	Minsk
Cambodia	7,000,000	Phnom Penh
Cameroon, United Repub.	11,100,000	Yaounde
Canada	26,600,000	Ottawa
Cape Verde	400,000	Praia
Central African Republic	2,900,000	Bangui
Chad	5,000,000	Ndjamena
Chile	13,200,000	Santiago
China, Peo. Rep. (PRC)	1,119,900,000	Beijing
Colombia	31,800,000	Bogotá
Comoros, Fed. Islamic Rep.	500,000	Moroni
Congo	2,200,000	Brazzaville
Costa Rica	3,000,000	San José
Cote d'Ivoire	12,600,000	Abidjan
Cuba	10,600,000	Havana
Cyprus	700,000	Nicosia
Czechoslovakia	15,700,000	Prague
Denmark	5,100,000	Copenhagen
Djibouti	400,000	Djibouti
Dominica	100,000	Roseau
Dominican Rep.	7,200,000	Santo Domingo
Ecuador	10,700,000	Quito
Egypt	54,700,000	El Qahira (Cairo)
El Salvador	5,300,000	San Salvador
Equatorial Guinea	400,000	Malabo
Ethiopia	51,700,000	Addis Ababa
Fiji	800,000	Suva

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Finland	5,000,000	Helsinki
France	56,400,000	Paris
Gabon	1,200,000	Libreville
Gambia	900,000	Banjul
Germany, East (b)	16,300,000	E. Berlin (b)
Germany, West (b)	63,200,000	Bonn (b)
Ghana	15,000,000	Accra
Greece	10,100,000	Athens
Grenada	100,000	St. George's
Guatemala	9,200,000	Guatemala City
Guinea	7,300,000	Conakry
Guinea-Bissau	1,000,000	Bissau
Guyana	800,000	Georgetown
Haiti	6,500,000	Port-au-Prince
Honduras	5,100,000	Tegucigalpa
Hungary	10,600,000	Budapest
Iceland	300,000	Reykjavik
India	853,400,000	New Delhi
Indonesia	189,400,000	Jakarta
Iran	55,600,000	Teheran
Iraq	18,800,000	Baghdad
Ireland	3,500,000	Dublin
Israel	4,600,000	Jerusalem
Italy	57,700,000	Rome
Jamaica	2,400,000	Kingston
Japan	123,600,000	Tokyo
Jordan	4,100,000	Amman
Kenya	24,600,000	Nairobi
Kuwait	2,100,000	Kuwait City
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	4,000,000	Vientiane
Lebanon	3,300,000	Beirut
Lesotho	1,800,000	Maseru
Liberia	2,600,000	Monrovia
Libyan Arab. Rep.	4,200,000	Tripoli
Luxembourg	400,000	Lux'brgville
Madagascar	12,000,000	Antananarivo
Malawi	9,200,000	Lilongwe
Malaysia	17,900,000	Kuala Lumpur
Maldives	200,000	Male
Mali	8,100,000	Bamako
Malta	400,000	Valletta
Mauritania	2,000,000	Nouakchott
Mauritius	1,100,000	Port Louis
Mexico	88,600,000	Mexico City
Mongolia	2,200,000	Ulan Bator
Morocco	25,600,000	Rabat
Mozambique	15,700,000	Maputo
Myanma (Burma)	41,300,000	Rangoon
Namibia	1,500,000	Windhoek
Nepal	19,100,000	Kathmandu

continued →

(a) The 1990 World Almanac and Book of Facts.
(b) Reunification scheduled for October 3,1990, with capital to be, once again, Berlin and the name to be Federal Republic of Germany.

UN MEMBERS continued

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Netherlands	14,900,000	Amsterdam
New Zealand	3,300,000	Wellington
Nicaragua	3,900,000	Managua
Niger	7,900,000	Niamey
Nigeria	118,800,000	Lagos
Norway	4,200,000	Oslo
Oman	1,500,000	Muscat
Pakistan	114,600,000	Islamabad
Panama	2,400,000	Panama City
Papua New Guinea	4,000,000	Port Moresby
Paraguay	4,300,000	Asuncion
Peru	21,900,000	Lima
Philippines	66,100,000	Quezon City *
Poland	37,800,000	Warsaw
Portugal	10,400,000	Lisbon
Qatar	500,000	Doha
Romania	23,300,000	Bucharest
Rwanda	7,300,000	Kigali
Saint Lucia	200,000	Castries
Saint Vincent & The Grenadines	100,000	Kingstown
São Tomé & Príncipe	100,000	São Tomé
Saudi Arabia	15,000,000	Riyadh
Senegal	7,400,000	Dakar
Seychelles	100,000	Victoria
Sierra Leone	4,200,000	Freetown
Singapore	2,700,000	Singapore
Solomon Islands	300,000	Honiara
Somalia	8,400,000	Mogadishu
South Africa	39,600,000	Cape Town
Spain	39,400,000	Madrid
Sri Lanka	17,200,000	Colombo
St. Christopher and Nevis	40,000	Basseterre
Sudan	25,200,000	Khartoum
Suriname	400,000	Paramaribo
Swaziland	800,000	Mbabane
Sweden	8,500,000	Stockholm
Syrian Arab Rep.	12,600,000	Damascus
Tanzania, United Republic	26,000,000	Dar es Salaam
Thailand	55,700,000	Bangkok
Togo	3,700,000	Lomé

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Trinidad & Tobago	1,300,000	Port-of-Spain
Tunisia	8,100,000	Tunis
Turkey	56,700,000	Ankara
Uganda	18,000,000	Kampala
Ukrainian SSR (1988)	51,377,000(a)	Kiev
United Arab Emirates	1,600,000	Abu Dhabi
United Kingdom	57,400,000	London
United States	251,400,000	Washington
Uruguay	3,000,000	Montevideo
USSR (Total)	291,000,000	Moscow
Vanuatu	200,000	Vila
Venezuela	19,600,000	Caracas
Vietnam	70,200,000	Hanoi
Western Samoa	200,000	Apia
Yemen, Rep. of	9,800,000	Sana
Yugoslavia	23,800,000	Belgrade
Zaire	36,600,000	Kinshasa
Zambia	8,100,000	Lusaka
Zimbabwe	9,700,000	Harare

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* Manila is de facto capital

(a) The 1990 World Almanac and Book of Facts.

STATE TAX COLLECTIONS UP NEARLY $20 BILLION IN FY89 AS RATES CLIMB, ACCORDING TO NEW TAX FOUNDATION SURVEY

The material on this page has been excerpted from an August 29, 1990 News Release by The Tax Foundation, 470 L'Enfant Plaza, SW, East Building #7112, Washington DC 20024. The Foundation describes itself as a nonprofit, nonpartisan research and public education organization founded in 1937 to monitor tax and fiscal activities at all levels of government.

State tax revenues jumped nearly $20 billion in FY'89 to a total of $284 billion, a 7.5 percent increase over the previous year's take, according to a new Tax Foundation Special Report entitled Survey of State Taxes and Rates. Rate hikes on sales, gasoline, and corporate and personal income led the way to record-high state tax collections around the country.

Increased spending for Medicaid, corrections, and education, along with a slowdown in many state economies, has caused budgetary problems, leading to increased taxes. In FY'89, ten out of thirteen major sources of tax receipts have increased, led by personal income, corporate income and property tax. Over the past decade, state tax revenues have increased 127.4 percent with revenue from personal income taxes leading this ...[increase] with a 172.2 percent increase (see Table 1). No evidence to date suggests that the trend toward higher tax burdens at the state level will be reversed.

In FY'89 personal and corporate income taxes gathered in $112.6 billion for the states, nearly 40 percent of total collections. The personal income tax component of these receipts showed a ... increase of 10.7 percent, larger than for any other revenue source, and netted $88.7 billion, $8.6 billion more than it had in FY'88. Rising almost as quickly were corporate income tax collections at a 10.4 percent clip.

General sales taxes, however, still held their position as the number one producer of revenue for the states. They provided 32.9 percent of total collections, or $93.4 billion, up 7.3 percent from last year.

Individual State Taxes Per $1,000

A more accurate measure of the state tax burden that individuals shoulder includes more than just their personal income taxes. When sales, motor fuels, property, licenses, insurance, tobacco, alcohol and other taxes are taken into account, consumers provided 88 percent of the total state tax revenue in FY'89. This amounts to a national average of $57.55 in state level individual taxes per $1,000 of personal income. More than half of the states surpassed this national average rate. Hawaii led the nation with $103.99 per $1,000 of income while on the lower end of the scale, individual taxpayers in Alaska paid ... $18.40 per $1,000. (See Table for state-by-state breakdown.)

State Tax Rates

- Connecticut still leads the nation with an 8 percent sales and use tax, followed closely by New Jersey and Rhode Island (7 percent). On the opposite end of the scale [of those states that impose a sales and use tax], Colorado, North Carolina, and Wyoming levy a 3 percent sales tax. No state general sales tax is imposed in Alaska, Delaware, Montana, New Hampshire, or Oregon.

- Nine states increased their personal income tax rates for FY'91. Most notably, New Jersey recently raised its top rate from 3.5 percent to 7 percent. The tax rate schedules are progressive in all but six of the 43 states that levy a broad-based personal income tax. Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, and Pennsylvania apply a flat tax rate regardless of income level.

- Corporate income taxes yielded $23.9 billion in FY'89. Currently, the maximum corporate rate is highest in Iowa (6 to 12 percent), Connecticut (11.5 percent), and North Dakota (3 to 10.5 percent).

- Five states dispense with both the corporate and individual income taxes: Nevada, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, and Wyoming. Florida and Alaska levy an income tax on corporations but not on individuals.

- Taxes on motor fuels contributed 6.3 percent to total tax receipts. Gasoline taxes are currently the highest in Hawaii (where combined state-local rates range from 19.8 to 27.5 cents per gallon), while Florida levies the lowest rate, 4 cents per gallon; however, gasoline is also subject to a 6.9 general sales tax. New York and Alaska follow closely with an 8 cent rate.

- In FY'89 states collected $5 billion of their total revenues from tobacco product excises. Texas tops the ranks with a 41 cent rate per pack of twenty cigarettes; North Carolina levies the lowest rate at 2 cents.

MAJOR STATE TAXES AND RATES

--- as of July 15, 1990 ---

State	Income Taxes		General Sales and Use Tax	Gasoline Tax (per gallon)	Cigarette Tax (per pack of 20)	Poperty Tax
	Corporate	Individual				
Alabama	5% (F)	2 to 5% (F)	4% (a)	11 cents	16.5 cents	X
Arizona	9.3 (F)	3.8 to 7 (F)	5 (a)	17 (b)	15 (b)	X
Arkansas	1 to 6	1 to 7	4 (a)	13.5	21	X
California	9.3 (c)	1 to 9.3 (c)	5 (a, d)	9 (b)	35	X
Colorado	5 to 5.3 (d)	5 (c)	3 (a)	20 (b)	20	X
Connecticut	11.5 (e, f)	1 to 14 (g)	8	22 (b)	40	X
District of Columbia	10 (f)	6 to 9.5	6	18	17	X
Georgia	6	1 to 6	4 (a)	7.5 + 3% of retail	12	X
Hawaii	4.4 to 6.4	2 to 10	4 (a)	19.8 to 27.5	40% of wholesale	
Idaho	8	2 to 8.2	5	18	18	X
Illinois	4.8 (h)	3	6.25 (a)	19	30	X
Indiana	3.4 (i)	3.4	5	15	15.5	X
Iowa	6 to 12 (F, j)	.4 to 9.98 (F,c)	4 (a)	20	31	
Kansas	4.5 (f)	3.65 to 8.75 (k)	4.25 (a)	16 (b)	24	X
Kentucky	3 to 7.25	2 to 6 (F)	6 (a)	15 (l)	3	X
Louisiana	4 to 8 (F)	2 to 6 (F)	4 (a)	20	16	X
Maine	3.5 to 8.93	2 to 8.5	5	17	31 (b)	X
Maryland	7	2 to 5	5	18.5	13	X
Massachusetts	9.5 (m)	5.95 (n)	5	17 (b)	26	X
Michigan	2.35	4.6	4	15	25	X
Minnesota	9.5 (b, c)	6 to 8.5 (o)	6 (a)	20	38	X
Mississippi	3 to 5	3 to 5	6	18 (d)	18	X
Missouri	5 to 6.5 (F, e)	1.5 to 6 (F)	4.225 (a, d)	11	13	X
Nebraska	5.17 to 7.24 (b)	2 to 5.9 (b)	5 (a)	21.9 (l)	27	X
New Jersey	9 (f)	2 to 7	7	10.5	40	X
New Mexico	4.8 to 7.6	1.8 to 8.5	5	16	15	X
New York	9 (c, f)	4 to 7.875 (d, p)	4 (a)	8	39	
North Carolina	7	6 to 7	3 (a)	21.5	2	X
North Dakota	3 to 10.5 (F, c)	2.67 to 12 (F, q)	5	17	30 (d)	X
Ohio	5.1 to 8.9	.743 to 6.9	5 (a)	20	18	X
Oklahoma	6	.5 to 10 (F, k)	4.5 (a)	16	23	
Pennsylvania	8.5	2.1	6 (a)	12	18	X
Rhode Island	9	22.96% of modified Federal income tax	7 (d)	20 (l)	37	X
South Carolina	5	3 to 7 (d)	5 (a)	16	7	X
Tennessee	6	6 (g)	5.5 (a)	20	13	
Utah	5	2.55 to 7.2 (F)	5 (a)	19	23	X
Vermont	5.5 to 8.25	28% of Federal income tax (d)	4	15 (d)	17	X
Virginia	6	2 to 5.75	3.5 (a)	17.5	2.5	X
West Virginia	9.3 (d)	3 to 6.5 (c)	6	15.5	17	X
Wisconsin	7.9	4.9 to 6.93	5 (a)	21.5 (l)	30 (e)	X
Florida	5.5 (c)		6 (a)	4 (r)	33.9	X
Nevada	These 5 states	These 7 states	5.75 (a)	18	35 (d)	X
South Dakota	have no	have no	4 (a)	18	23	
Texas	corporate	individual	6.25 (a)	15	41	
Washington	income tax	income tax	6.5 (a)	22 (b, l)	34 (d)	X
Wyoming			3 (a)	9 (l)	12	X
Alaska	1 to 9.4		These	8	29	X
Delaware	8.7	3.2 to 7.7 (F)	5 states	16 (b)	14 (b)	
Montana	6.75 (f, s)	2 to 11 (F)	have no	20	18	X
New Hampshire	8	5 (g)	general	16	25	X
Oregon	6.6	5 to 9 (F)	sales tax	18 (b)	28	X

(X) Indicates state levies a property tax.
(F) Allows federal income tax as a deduction.
(a) Local taxes are additional.
(b) Future increases scheduled under current law.
(c) Alternative minimum tax is imposed.
(d) Future reductions scheduled under current law.
(e) Alternative methods of calculation may be required.
(f) Corporate surtax is imposed, Connecticut – 20%, District of Columbia – 5%, Kansas – 2.25%, New Jersey – .375%, New York – 15%, Montana – 5%.
(g) In Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Tennessee, rates apply to income from dividends and interest. Capital gains are taxed at 7% in Connecticut.
(h) Additional 2.5% personal property replacement tax imposed.
(i) A supplemental net income tax is imposed at 4.5%.
(j) Franchise tax is 5% of taxable net income.
(k) In Kansas and Oklahoma, the higher rates apply to taxpayers deducting Federal income tax.
(l) Tax rate is periodically adjusted administratively.
(m) Excise tax is imposed equal to the greater of $456.
(n) Tax of 12% on income derived from interest, dividends, and capital gains.
(o) Additional tax is imposed on income over specified levels, varying with filing status.
(p) Qualified taxpayers may elect to pay alternative taxes at varying rates.
(q) Optional tax of 14% of taxpayers federal income tax liability.
(r) In addition, Florida imposes a 6.9 cent sales tax on gasoline.
(s) 7% rate for corporations using water's edge apportionment.

Source: Compiled by Tax Foundation from survey of state revenue offices and data reported by Commerce Clearing House through June 15, 1990.

Source: The Tax Foundation, Washington DC 20024. Tax Features, July/August 1990. P.6. Refer to headnote on preceding page.

An Opinion That
BILINGUALISM A STRENGTH, NOT A HANDICAP IN EDUCATION

Among Other Pluses, "an across the board boost in general cognitive abilities, including conceptual thinking, visual and spatial thinking, analogical thinking and creativity."

The following are the opening paragraphs of an article by Cynthia Patrick in The Stanford University Campus Report, December 6, 1989.

Not many Stanford professors get abusive mail in response to their research, nor can they expect recrimination when they appear on talk shows — but then, few of them have addressed the volatile topic of bilingual education.

Education Prof. Rafael Diaz is surprisingly nonchalant about the reaction his work elicits and amiably insists that his audiences, in many cases attackers, learn to separate "research facts" from "opinions."

"Bilingualism — *real* bilingualism, where both languages are supported — helps children develop their thinking. That's a research fact. Whether we want to design programs to support this fact, and where the money would come from to do this, is a matter of opinon," he says.

"It's a very passionate subject. Language is *so* symbolic of territory. On this issue, people have a sense that 'you're trying to take part of my pie.' People get competitive about language. Some people think I'm trying to get kids to evade learning English, but I'm not."

And he also insists that his newer research on how children talk to themselves, and how this "private speech" boosts their learning, is likely to have far wider implications, though it may generate less controversy. Diaz links private speech to reduced hyperactivity, control of adult addictions in later life and, more generally, children's ability to regulate their own behavior.

Both strands of research find their sources in Diaz's own background and cultural heritage.

"Real impoverishment" of cities

Diaz was born to a high degree of multiculturalism. His father fled Spain after General Franco triumphed in the Spanish Civil War. His mother was a Cuban-born Basque.

When he was 11, Diaz and his family fled another revolution — this time Castro's successful uprising in the late 1950s. The Spanish-speaking boy's new home was the island of Aruba in the Dutch Antilles. There he learned enough Dutch to attend school and also picked up the local dialect, Papiamento. His teen years found the family in Guatemala, then Puerto Rico.

"It was a very lonely way to grow up, moving from place to place, but I could see things that others didn't see." These "things" — the different cultural and linguistic perceptions not available to the children who grew up in one place — were to fuel his later academic research.

Meanwhile, Diaz's international meanderings continued. As a 20-year-old social worker, Diaz worked in the Amazon jungles of Venezuela. Then, at 22, he moved to New York City to continue his studies. That was his first significant exposure to the English language and to inner-city American life. The culture shock, says Diaz, was unforgettable.

"I was very moved by the poverty of New York City, moved by the pain I saw there," he recalls. "The poverty of South America was nothing compared to the poverty of the inner city.

"In Venezuela, people may have been poor, but they were connected to the earth, to their families, to themselves, to a sense of identity. In America, they had more buying power and welfare checks, but they were alienated from their identity, their country, themselves. That's real impoverishment."

"Wonderful effects" of bilingualism

One American attitude that surprised Diaz, even in those early days, was the perception that bilingualism was an educational handicap for children; he had always regarded it as a personal strength. Indeed, he points out, studying languages like French, Latin or ancient Greek was once considered an indispensable part of upper-class education.

"But if you look at the recent literature in this country, bilingualism is usually seen as detrimental, as something that needs to be stamped out. It describes kids as confused and bewildered if they use two languages. Bilingualism has even been described as 'a social plague.' "

Part of the misperception, he says, may arise from earlier researchers' difficulty in distinguishing true bilingual children, who are fluent in two languages, from children who may have only a rudimentary knowledge of the second language.

Diaz admits that this misperception may be caused by poor bilingual "sink-or-swim" programs, where children are expected to discard their first language when they cross the school threshold.

"Bilingual means working with two, not one, languages. When you have a real bilingual experience, it is not only *not* detrimental, it has a lot of wonderful effects." Among the "wonderful effects" his research has found is an across-the-board boost in general cognitive abilities, including conceptual thinking, visual and spatial thinking, analogical thinking and creativity.

These findings emerged during a one-year study in New Haven, Conn., which tracked the verbal and non-verbal development of 100 children in a bilingual program. His findings were reinforced when he later studied 54 bilingual preschoolers in El Paso, Texas. The research, conducted on the border between the United States and Mexico, included not only Spanish-speaking children learning English but Anglo students learning Spanish.

"We also found that bilingual kids have a very refined objective awareness of language — we call it 'metalinguistic awareness,' " he says.

An example of one test for metalinguistic awareness is a game in which chidren were asked to substitute the word "spaghetti" for "I" in sentences. When asked "How are you?" a monolingual child was far more likely to answer "Spaghetti *is* fine." A bilingual child, on the other hand, was more likely to respond "Spaghetti *am* fine," leaving the verb in the first-person singular, as if "spaghetti" were actually "I."

"These games show awareness and control of language processing. They ask kids to break the rules of language. The bilingual children are able to bring this automatic process to their awareness," notes Diaz.

Diaz thinks this "awareness" is the reason these children have a more flexible understanding of language and culture. The findings are so strong, that Diaz says, "If I had my way, all kids would be educated with the goal of becoming bilingual — minority *and* majority kids included." ❖

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A TRIBUTE TO LEWIS MUMFORD (1895 - 1990)

-- Philosopher, Planner, Historian, Cultural and Political Commentator, Literary Critic, and Essayist --

On Sunday, April 22, at the 1990 National Planning Conference of the American Planning Association, planners will pause in their deliberations to remember Lewis Mumford, who died January 26, 1990, at the age of 94. Philosopher, planner, historian, cultural and political commentator, literary critic, and essayist, Mumford evolved a vision of social possibilities from which all planners have drawn. He was a co-organizer of the RPAA, a teacher, a lecturer, and the author of 30 books. His popular "Sky Line" column, written for The New Yorker during the thirties and forties focused public interest on numerous new features of the urban scene -- from skyscrapers to urban renewal plans.

Lewis Mumford first spoke to an assembly of planners at the 1927 National Planning Conference. He urged them to guard against merely providing for the continuous, expeditious expansion of the existing cities. Look beyond the boundaries of the metropolis, he pleaded. Concentrate on the region, he said, and the on the quality of life. Always the quality.

Mumford's entreaties heralded his later writings, especially the Culture of Cities, published in 1938. For many planners it was the first heady treatise they had yet read that spoke to their still very young profession. Mumford defined the process of planning, long before planners adopted the phrase. He anticipated advocacy, urging that the common man be brought into the creation of plans. He argued that children, in elementary schools, should learn to see and respond to their neighborhood and their town. He pleaded for what he called "the balance of nature" - the environmentally sensitive lands.

All of this, and more, was enveloped in a sweeping image of culture, and of change. He put such matters in historical context. He saw them as something much more than discrete problems to be solved. They were, instead, the stuff out of which would be fashioned an urbanizing world of human dignity where the individual might live a creative, meaningful life.

Though Mumford did not consider himself an idealist, he did raise images of a built environment that had a sense of community - something to which people could belong, something better that what seemed en route, absent inspired intervention.

Within the planning mainstream, however, idealism did daily battle with practicality. The older urban cores were growing more congested, and the outer edges were throbbing, with inadequate controls or guidelines. There was work enough to do. Long range goals for a better world tomorrow were fine, but short range demands and needs of the world today were insistent, and urgent. And so it seems that we never really heard Mumford's message. Yet perhaps we did, and still do. Mumford, too, was insistent - and still is, if we listen.

Perry Norton, AICP

Source: Reprinted by permission of the Journal of the American Planning Association. Spring 1990 issue. P. 160.

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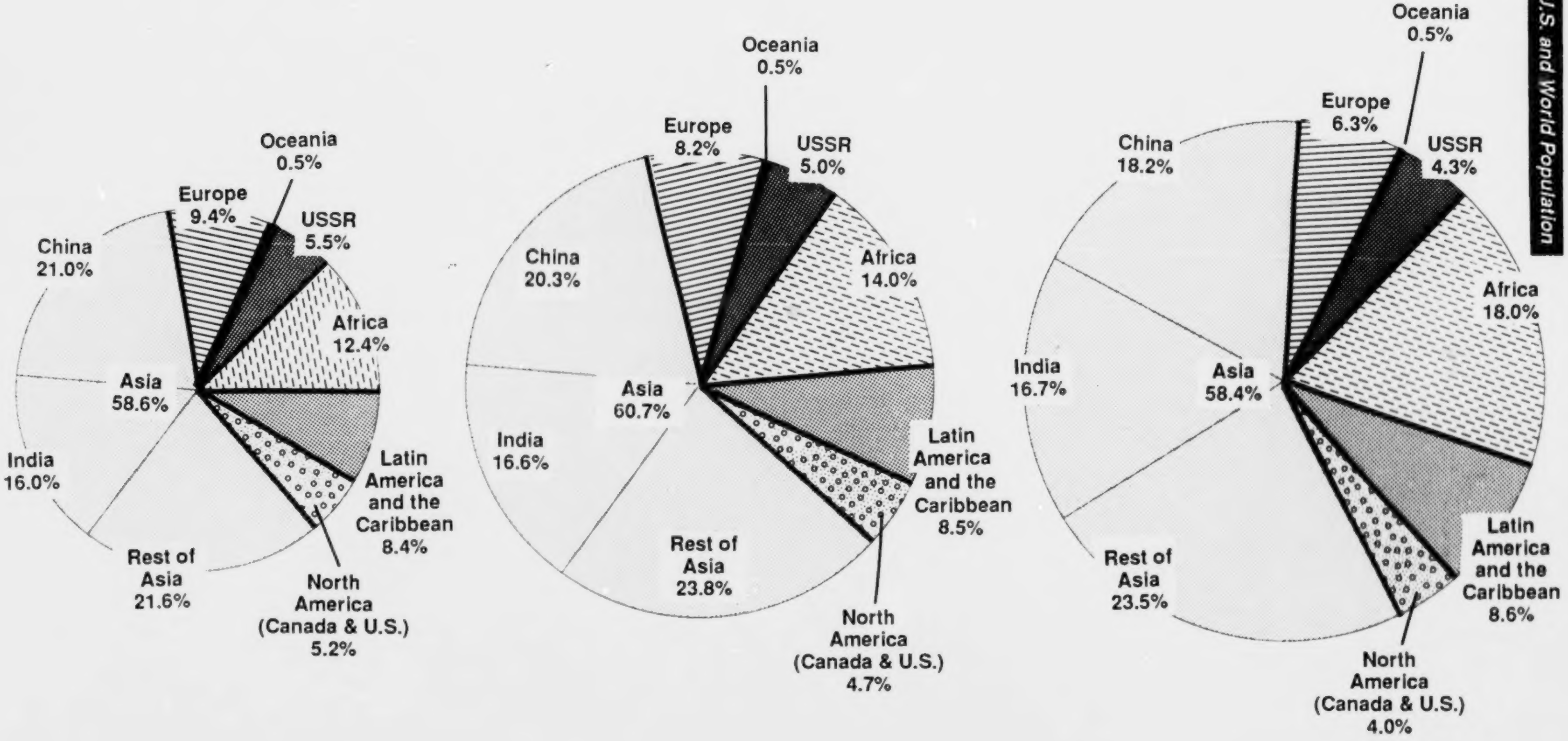
DISTRIBUTION OF WORLD POPULATION BY REGION; YEARS 1990, 2000 and 2020.



Mid-1990: 5.321 billion

Year 2000: 6.292 billion

Year 2020: 8.228 billion

Percentages for two of the charts (2000 and 2020) do not add to 100 because of internal rounding.

World Eagle charts. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1990 World Population Data Sheet.

WORLD POPULATION AND VITAL STATISTICS, BY CONTINENT AND REGION, 1970 TO 1989, AND PROJECTIONS, 1990 TO 2000

Crude birth rate: Number of births during 1 year per 1,000 persons (based on midyear population). Crude death rate: Number of deaths during 1 year per 1,000 persons (based on midyear population). Total fertility rate: Average number of children that would be born per woman if all women lived to the end of their childbearing years and, at each year of age, they experienced the birth rates occurring in the specified year.

CONTINENT AND REGION	MIDYEAR POPULATION (millions)					ANNUAL RATE OF GROWTH [1] (percent)			CRUDE BIRTH RATE		CRUDE DEATH RATE		TOTAL FERTILITY RATE (number)		LIFE EXPECTANCY (years)	
	1970	1980	1989	1990	2000	1970–1980	1980–1990	1990–2000	1989	2000	1989	2000	1989	2000	1989	2000
World total	**3,721**	**4,477**	**5,239**	**5,333**	**6,291**	**1.8**	**1.7**	**1.7**	**27.2**	**23.3**	**9.5**	**8.3**	**3.51**	**3.05**	**62.0**	**65.3**
More developed regions	1,049	1,137	1,204	1,211	1,270	.8	.6	.5	14.7	13.3	9.7	9.6	1.94	1.92	73.5	75.7
Less developed regions	2,672	3,340	4,035	4,122	5,021	2.2	2.1	2.0	30.9	25.8	9.5	7.9	3.97	3.34	60.3	63.9
Percent of world	72	75	77	77	80	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)
Africa [2]	376	494	641	661	890	2.7	2.9	3.0	43.9	39.6	13.8	10.7	6.24	5.52	53.1	57.8
Asia	2,111	2,593	3,069	3,128	3,712	2.1	1.9	1.7	27.9	22.4	8.9	7.6	3.49	2.85	62.0	65.8
More developed regions	104	117	123	124	129	1.1	.6	.4	11.5	12.9	6.8	8.6	1.74	1.85	79.0	79.8
Less developed regions	2,007	2,477	2,946	3,004	3,583	2.1	1.9	1.8	28.6	22.8	9.0	7.6	3.57	2.88	61.7	65.5
East Asia [3]	991	1,181	1,330	1,350	1,531	1.8	1.3	1.3	21.4	15.4	6.7	6.4	2.42	1.87	69.8	73.2
South Asia [3]	1,120	1,412	1,739	1,778	2,182	2.3	2.3	2.0	32.9	27.3	10.5	8.4	4.32	3.53	58.1	62.8
Latin America [2]	286	364	442	450	540	2.4	2.1	1.8	27.7	22.9	6.9	5.9	3.38	2.74	67.3	70.9
Middle America [2] [3]	70	93	115	117	146	2.9	2.3	2.2	31.4	26.3	6.2	5.2	3.85	3.09	68.5	72.0
Caribbean [2] [3]	25	29	33	33	38	1.6	1.3	1.2	24.1	19.8	7.8	7.1	2.78	2.41	66.7	69.4
South America [2] [3]	191	242	294	300	356	2.4	2.1	1.7	26.6	21.9	7.0	6.1	3.26	2.63	66.8	70 5
Northern America [3] [4]	226	252	275	277	296	1.1	.9	.7	15.1	12.5	8.6	8.9	1.85	1.84	75.6	76.9
Europe [4]	460	484	498	499	511	.5	.3	.2	13.2	12.1	10.6	10.5	1.76	1.76	74.5	75.9
Soviet Union [4]	243	266	289	291	312	.9	.9	.7	18.3	16.2	10.5	9.4	2.42	2.27	69.2	73.2
Oceania	19	23	26	26	30	1.6	1.5	1.3	19.8	17.7	8.1	8.3	2.58	2.37	69.5	71.2
Australia and New Zealand [4]	15	18	20	20	22	1.4	1 2	1.0	15.5	14.0	7.8	8.3	1.92	1.92	76 0	76.9
Less developed regions	4	5	6	6	8	2.5	2.4	2.2	33.7	29.4	9.4	8.2	4.73	3.79	59.5	62.6

X Not applicable. [1] Computed by the exponential method. For explanation of average annual percent change, see Guide to Tabular Presentation.
[2] Less developed regions. [3] For component countries, see table 1440. [4] More developed region.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *World Population Profile, 1989.*

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1990. Table 1437. P. 830.

THE 25 MOST POPULOUS COUNTRIES, RANKED BY SIZE

(thousands)

Mid-1990		Projection to Year 2000		Projection to Year 2020	
China	1,119,900	China	1,280,000	China	1,496,300
India	853,400	India	1,042,500	India	1,374,500
USSR	291,000	USSR	312,000	USSR	355,000
US	251,400	US	268,300	US	294,400
Indonesia	189,400	Indonesia	223,800	Indonesia	287,300
Brazil	150,400	Brazil	179,500	Nigeria	273,200
Japan	123,600	Nigeria	160,800	Pakistan	251,300
Nigeria	118,800	Pakistan	149,100	Brazil	233,800
Bangladesh	114,800	Bangladesh	146,600	Bangladesh	201,400
Pakistan	114,600	Japan	127,500	Mexico	142,100
Mexico	88,600	Mexico	107,200	Iran	130,200
Germany	79,500	Vietnam	88,300	Ethiopia	126,000
Vietnam	70,200	Philippines	82,700	Japan	124,200
Philippines	66,100	Germany	81,200	Vietnam	119,500
Italy	57,700	Iran	75,700	Philippines	117,500
United Kingdom	57,400	Ethiopia	70,800	Egypt	101,900
Turkey	56,700	Egypt	69,000	Turkey	93,800
France	56,400	Turkey	69,000	Zaire	90,000
Thailand	55,700	Thailand	63,700	South Africa	83,500
Iran	55,600	United Kingdom	59,100	Thailand	78,100
Egypt	54,700	Italy	58,600	Germany	77,300
Ethiopia	51,700	France	57,900	Tanzania	68,800
Korea, Rep. of	42,800	South Africa	51,500	Myanmar	67,700
Myanmar	41,300	Zaire	50,300	United Kingdom	60,800
Spain	39,400	Myanmar	49,800	Kenya	60,500

World Eagle table. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1990 World Population Data Sheet.

POPULATIONS OF THE WORLD'S 80 LARGEST URBAN AREAS

[**In millions.** The 100 largest cities are large urban agglomerations, composed, in most cases, of the central city, adjacent smaller cities and towns, and suburbs. City boundaries depend on local administrative boundaries, population densities, types of economic activity and other characteristics. Rankings depend on the population living within the urban agglomeration boundaries as determined by local and national governments. Rankings would not necessarily be the same if uniform criteria were used]

CITIES RANKED BY POPULATION SIZE, **1985**	1960	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990, proj.	2000, proj.
Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan	10.7	14.9	16.4	17.7	19.0	20.5	21.3
Mexico City, Mexico	4.9	8.7	11.1	14.0	16.7	19.4	24.4
New York, U.S.	**14.2**	**16.2**	**15.9**	**15.6**	**15.6**	**15.7**	**16.1**
Sao Paulo, Brazil	4.7	8.1	10.1	12.5	15.5	18.4	23.6
Shanghai, China: Mainland	10.7	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.6	14.7
Buenos Aires, Argentina	6.7	8.3	9.1	9.9	10.8	11.6	13.1
London, England	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4	10.5	10.6	10.8
Calcutta, India	5.5	6.9	7.9	9.0	10.3	11.8	15.9
Rio De Janeiro, Brazil	4.9	7.0	8.0	9.0	10.1	11.1	13.0
Seoul, South Korea	2.4	5.3	6.8	8.3	10.1	11.3	13.0
Los Angeles, U.S.	**6.5**	**8.4**	**8.9**	**9.5**	**10.0**	**10.5**	**10.9**
Osaka/Kobe, Japan	5.8	7.6	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.5	11.2
Greater Bombay, India	4.1	5.8	6.9	8.1	9.5	11.1	15.4
Beijing, China: Mainland	7.3	8.3	8.9	9.1	9.3	9.7	11.5
Moscow, Soviet Union	6.3	7.1	7.6	8.2	8.9	9.4	10.1
Paris, France	7.2	8.3	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.8	8.8
Tianjin, China: Mainland	6.0	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.4	10.0
Cairo/Giza, Egypt	3.7	5.3	6.1	6.9	7.9	9.1	11.8
Jakarta, Indonesia	2.7	4.3	5.3	6.4	7.8	9.4	13.2
Milan, Italy	4.5	5.5	6.1	6.8	7.5	7.9	8.7
Teheran, Iran	1.9	3.3	4.3	5.6	7.2	9.2	13.7
Manila/Quezon, Philippines	2.3	3.5	5.0	6.0	7.1	8.4	11.5
Delhi, India	2.3	3.5	4.4	5.5	7.0	8.6	12.8
Chicago, U.S.	**6.0**	**6.7**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**6.9**	**7.0**
Karachi, Pakistan	1.9	3.1	4.0	5.0	6.2	7.7	11.6
Bangkok, Thailand	2.2	3.1	3.8	4.8	5.9	7.2	10.3
Lagos, Nigeria	.8	2.0	3.3	4.5	5.8	7.6	12.5
Lima-Callo, Peru	1.7	2.8	3.6	4.4	5.4	6.5	8.8
Hong Kong, Hong Kong	2.6	3.4	3.9	4.5	5.2	5.4	6.1
Leningrad, Soviet Union	3.5	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.8
Madras, India	1.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	4.9	5.7	7.9
Madrid, Spain	2.2	3.4	3.8	4.3	4.8	5.1	5.4
Dacca, Bangladesh	.7	1.5	2.3	3.3	4.8	6.4	11.3
Bogota, Colombia	1.3	2.4	3.1	3.9	4.7	5.6	6.9
Baghdad, Iraq	1.0	2.1	2.7	3.5	4.4	5.4	7.7
Naples, Italy	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.3	4.5
Santiago, Chile	2.0	2.8	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.7	5.6
Philadelphia, U.S.	**3.6**	**4.0**	**4.1**	**4.1**	**4.2**	**4.2**	**4.3**
Shenyang, China	2.5	3.1	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.5	5.5
Pusan, South Korea	1.2	1.8	2.4	3.1	4.0	4.8	5.8
Detroit, U.S.	**3.6**	**4.0**	**3.9**	**3.8**	**3.8**	**3.9**	**3.9**
Bangalore, India	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.8	3.7	4.9	7.7
Roma, Italy	2.3	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.8
Sydney, Australia	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.8	4.1
Caracas, Venezuela	1.3	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.5	4.0	4.8
Wuhan, China: Mainland	2.2	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.7	4.5
Lahore, Pakistan	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.1	5.9
Katowice, Poland	2.4	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.9
Guangzhou, China: Mainland	1.9	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.5
San Francisco, U.S.	**2.4**	**3.0**	**3.1**	**3.2**	**3.3**	**3.4**	**3.5**
Barcelona, Spain	2.0	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4
Belo Horiaonte, Brazil	.9	1.6	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.8	5.0
Toronto, Canada	1.7	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.6
Melbourne, Australia	1.9	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.3
Birmingham, United Kingdom	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
Ahmedabad, India	1.2	1.7	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.6	5.1
Hyderabad, India	1.2	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.5	4.9
Instanbul, Turkey	1.5	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.3
Ankara, Turkey	.6	1.3	1.7	2.2	2.9	3.6	5.2
Washington, D.C., U.S.	**1.8**	**2.5**	**2.6**	**2.8**	**2.9**	**3.0**	**3.2**
Alexandria, Egypt	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.3	4.3
Montreal, Canada	2.0	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Houston, U.S.	**1.2**	**1.7**	**2.0**	**2.4**	**2.8**	**3.2**	**3.6**
Ho Chi Minh Village, Viet Nam	1.3	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	4.4
Athens, Greece	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.9	3.2
Chongqing, China: Mainland	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.4
Rangoon, Burma	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.2	4.5
Boston, U.S.	**2.4**	**2.7**	**2.7**	**2.7**	**2.7**	**2.7**	**2.8**
Alger, Algeria	.9	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.7	3.4	5.2
Chengdu, China: Mainland	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.1	4.0
Casablanca, Morocco	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.3	4.6
Porto Alegre, Brazil	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.9
Recife, Brazil	1.2	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.6
Dallas, U.S.	**1.2**	**2.0**	**2.2**	**2.5**	**2.7**	**2.9**	**3.1**
Guadalajara, Mexico	.9	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.9
Harbin, China	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.6
Kiev, Soviet Union	1.2	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.4
Kinshasa, Zaire	.5	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.0	4.4
Singapore, Singapore	1.2	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.6	2.7	3.0
Manchester, United Kingdom	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1990, Table 1441, Pp. 836-837.

FOCUS Section

The Bureau Of The Census Has Designated 283 Metropolitan Areas. Here Are The 37 Metro Areas Of One Million Or More Population, As Estimated For July 1, 1988

49% of Us Live in These 37 Metropolitan Areas
77% of Us Live in The Total of 283 Metro Areas

Metropolitan Statistical Areas (MSA's), Consolidated Metropolitan Statistical Areas (CMSA's) and Primary Metropolitan Statistical Areas (PMSA's): The general concept of an MSA is one of a large population nucleus together with adjacent communities which have a high degree of social and economic integration with that nucleus. CMSA's are large metropolitan complexes within which individual components, designated as PMSA's, have been defined. MSA's CMSA's, and PMSA's are defined by the Office of Management and Budget as a standard for Federal agencies in the preparation and publication of statistics relating to metropolitan areas. The new terms MSA, CMSA, and PMSA went into effect June 30, 1983, replacing the previous terms SMSA (standard metropolitan statistical area) and SCSA (standard consolidated statistical area). The entire territory of the United States is classified as metropolitan (inside MSA's or CMSA's) or non-metropolitan (outside MSA's or CMSA's). MSA's, CMSA's, and PMSA's are defined in terms of entire counties except in New England, where the definitions are in terms of cities and towns: To summarize data for New England that are available only by counties, New England County Metropolitan Areas (NECMA's) have been defined as a convenience for data users. From time to time, new metropolitan areas are created and the boundaries of others change. As a result, data for metropolitan areas over time may not be comparable and the analysis of historical trends must be made cautiously. For descriptive details, tables showing changes in metropolitan area definitions, and a listing of area titles and components of each metropolitan area, see Appendix II.

1.	**New York-Northern New Jersey-Long Island, NY-NJ-CT**	**18,120,200**
2.	**Los Angeles-Anaheim-Riverside, CA**	**13,769,700**
3.	**Chicago-Gary-Lake County, IL-IN-WI**	**8,180,900**
4.	**San Francisco-Oakland-San Jose, CA**	**6,041,800**
5.	**Philadelphia-Wilmington-Trenton, PA-NJ-DE-MD**	**5,963,300**
6.	**Detroit-Ann Arbor, MI**	**4,620,200**
7.	**Boston-Lawrence-Salem, MA-NH**	**4,109,900**
8.	**Dallas-Fort Worth, TX**	**3,766,100**
9.	**Washington, DC-MD-VA**	**3,734,200**
10.	**Houston-Galveston-Brazoria, TX**	**3,641,500**
11.	**Miami-Fort Lauderdale, FL**	**3,000,500**
12.	**Cleveland-Akron-Lorain, OH**	**2,789,000**
13.	**Atlanta, GA**	**2,736,600**
14.	**St. Louis, MO-IL**	**2,466,700**
15.	**Seattle-Tacoma, WA**	**2,420,800**
16.	**Minneapolis-St. Paul, MN**	**2,387,500**
17.	**San Diego, CA**	**2,370,400**
18.	**Baltimore, MD**	**2,342,500**
19.	**Pittsburgh-Beaver Valley, PA**	**2,284,100**
20.	**Phoenix, AZ**	**2,029,500**
	Clearwater, FL	
21.	**Tampa-St. Petersburg-**	**1,995,100**
22.	**Denver-Boulder, CO**	**1,858,000**
23.	**Cincinnati-Hamilton, OH-KY-IN**	**1,728,500**
24.	**Kansas City, MO-KS**	**1,575,400**
25.	**Milwaukee-Racine, WI**	**1,571,700**
26.	**Portland-Vancouver, OR-WA**	**1,414,200**
27.	**Sacramento, CA**	**1,385,200**
	Newport News, VA	
28.	**Norfolk-Virginia Beach-**	**1,380,200**
29.	**Columbus, OH**	**1,344,300**
30.	**San Antonio, TX**	**1,323,200**
31.	**New Orleans, LA**	**1,306,900**
32.	**Indianapolis, IN**	**1,236,600**
33.	**Buffalo-Niagara Falls, NY**	**1,175,600**
34.	**Providence-Pawtucket-Fall River, RI-MA**	**1,125,400**
35.	**Charlotte-Gastonia-Rock Hill, NC-SC**	**1,112,000**
36.	**Hartford-New Britain-Middletown, CT**	**1,067,600**
37.	**Salt Lake City-Ogden, UT**	**1,065,000**

The fastest growing metro areas, regardless of size:

	1988 Population	Percent Growth
Naples, FL	**138,500**	**+61.1%**
Ocala, FL	**189,800**	**+55.0%**
Fort Pierce, FL	**231,800**	**+53.3%**
Fort Myers-Cape Coral, FL	**309,100**	**+50.6%**
Melbourne-Titusville-Palm Bay, FL	**388,300**	**+42.3%**

	1988 Population	Percent Growth
West Palm Beach-Boca Raton-Delray Beach, FL	**818,500**	**+41.9%%**
Austin, TX	**748,500**	**+39.5%**
Orlando, FL	**971,200**	**+38.8%**
Fort Walton Beach, FL	**150,600**	**+37.0%**
Las Cruces, NM	**132,000**	**+37.0%**

World Eagle tables. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-145, September 8, 1989, which was the most recent source used to prepare Table No. 36 Metropolitan Statistical Areas in the 1990 edition of The Statistical Abstract of the United States.

1988 RANKINGS OF U.S. CITIES REFLECT REGIONAL POPULATION SHIFTS

San Diego and San Jose CA, and Jacksonville FL, moved up in the ranks of the 20 cities with the largest populations in 1988, according to the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

San Diego replaced Detroit as the nation's sixth largest city; San Jose passed San Francisco and Indianapolis to move into 12th place; and Jacksonville replaced Washington DC as the 16th largest city.

Among the 25 largest cities, 12 are estimated to have lost population from 1986 to 1988, including Houston, Dallas, and Denver. Dallas' loss dropped the city to under one million after having reached that level for the first time in 1986.

Since 1970, there have been major shifts in the ranking of the most populous cities, with many in the East and Midwest being replaced by ones in the South and West. Seven of the 10 largest cities in 1970 were in the North and East but by 1988 there were only four in these regions; Baltimore, Washington, and Cleveland had been replaced by San Diego, San Antonio, and Phoenix.

Notable population increases, and rises in population rank, have occurred since 1970 in western and southern cities such as

Los Angeles (+541,000 and from third to second);
Houston (+465,000 and from sixth to fourth);
San Diego (+373,000 and from 14th to sixth);
Dallas (+143,000, no change in rank);
San Antonio (+287,000 and from 15th to ninth);
Phoenix (+339,000 and from 20th to 10th);
San Jose (+279,000 and from 29th to 12th).
Also, Jacksonville (+131,000 and from 26th to 16th);
El Paso (+189,000 and from 45th to 23rd);
Austin, Texas (+211,000 and from 56th to 27th);
Albuquerque (+134,000 and from 58th to 36th);
and Virginia Beach (+193,000 and from 77th to 43rd).

Substantial losses after 1970 were experienced by eastern and midwestern cities such as

New York (-543,000, no change in population rank);
Chicago (-392,000 and from second to third);
Philadelphia (-303,000 and from fourth to fifth);
Detroit (-478,000 and from fifth to seventh);
Baltimore (-154,000 and from seventh to 11th);
Washington (-140,000 and from ninth to 17th);
Milwaukee (-118,000 and from 12th to 18th);
Cleveland (-230,000 and from 10th to 22nd);
St. Louis (-219,000 and from 18th to 34th);
Pittsburgh (-145,000 and from 23rd to 38th);
Minneapolis (-90,000 and from 31st to 46th);
and Buffalo (-149,000 and from 28th to 50th).

Some of the southern and western city growth can be attributed to territorial annexations while most large eastern and midwestern cities were unable to annex territory. However, the great majority of the growth reflects the pronounced population shift into the South and West from the East and Midwest since 1970.

These estimates are for the cities proper and do not include suburbs. Populations and rankings for metropolitan areas, including suburbs, often differ substantially from those for cities.

[The Census Bureau lists] 186 cities estimated to have 100,000 or more population in 1988. This is four more than in 1986 and 15 more than in the 1980 census. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release CB89-182, November 22, 1989.

RANKINGS OF THE 40 LARGEST U.S. CITIES BY 1988 POPULATION

City and State	Estimate, July 1, 1988	Census, April 1, 1980	Census, April 1, 1970	Rank 1988	Rank 1980	Rank 1970
New York, N.Y.	7,352,700	7,071,639	7,895,563	1	1	1
Los Angeles, Calif.	3,352,710	2,968,528	2,811,801	2	3	3
Chicago, Ill.	2,977,520	3,005,072	3,369,357	3	2	2
Houston, Tex.	1,698,090	1,595,138	1,233,535	4	5	6
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,647,000	1,688,210	1,949,996	5	4	4
San Diego, Calif.	1,070,310	875,538	697,471	6	8	14
Detroit, Mich.	1,035,920	1,203,369	1,514,063	7	6	5
Dallas, Tex.	987,360	904,599	844,401	8	7	8
San Antonio, Tex.	941,150	785,940	654,153	9	11	15
Phoenix, Ariz.	923,750	789,704	584,303	10	9	20
Baltimore, Md.	751,400	786,741	905,787	11	10	7
San Jose, Calif.	738,420	629,402	459,913	12	17	29
San Francisco, Calif.	731,600	678,974	715,674	13	13	13
Indianapolis, Ind.	727,130	700,807	736,856	14	12	11
Memphis, Tenn.	645,190	646,170	623,988	15	14	17
Jacksonville, Fla.	635,430	540,920	504,265	16	22	26
Washington, D.C.	617,000	638,432	756,668	17	15	9
Milwaukee, Wis.	599,380	636,298	717,372	18	16	12
Boston, Mass.	577,830	562,994	641,071	19	20	16
Columbus, Ohio	569,570	565,032	540,025	20	19	21
New Orleans, La.	531,700	557,927	593,471	21	21	19
Cleveland, Ohio	521,370	573,822	750,879	22	18	10
El Paso, Tex.	510,970	425,259	322,261	23	28	45
Seattle, Wash.	502,200	493,846	530,831	24	23	22
Denver, Colo.	492,200	492,694	514,678	25	24	24
Nashville-Davidson, Tenn	481,400	455,651	426,029	26	25	32
Austin, Tex.	464,690	345,890	253,539	27	42	56
Kansas City, Mo.	438,950	448,028	507,330	28	27	25
Oklahoma City, Okla.	434,380	404,014	368,164	29	31	37
Fort Worth, Tex.	426,610	385,164	393,455	30	33	33
Atlanta, Ga.	420,220	425,022	495,039	31	29	27
Portland, Ore.	418,470	368,146	379,967	32	35	36
Long Beach, Calif.	415,040	361,496	358,879	33	37	40
St. Louis, Mo.	403,700	452,804	622,236	34	26	18
Tucson, Ariz.	385,720	330,537	262,933	35	45	53
Albuquerque, N.M.	378,480	332,336	244,501	36	44	58
Honolulu, Hawaii 1/	376,110	367,878	324,871	37	36	44
Pittsburgh, Pa.	375,230	423,960	520,089	38	30	23
Miami, Fla.	371,100	346,681	334,859	39	41	42
Cincinnati, Ohio	370,480	385,410	453,514	40	32	30

1 The estimates shown here are for Honolulu census designated place, which is treated as the city by the Census Bureau, rather than the Honolulu city/county governmental unit.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-182, November 22, 1989.

PROJECTIONS OF U.S. RESIDENT POPULATION FOR YEARS 1990, 2000, AND 2010 BY REGIONS, DIVISIONS AND STATES, AND BY SERIES

Region, division, and State	1990				2000				2010			
	Series A	Series B	Series C	Series D	Series A	Series B	Series C	Series D	Series A	Series B	Series C	Series D
United States	249,891	249,891	249,891	249,891	267,748	267,748	267,748	267,748	282,056	282,056	282,056	282,056
Northeast	50,850	50,707	50,814	51,179	52,419	51,005	51,662	53,583	53,801	50,763	51,961	55,028
New England	13,131	13,073	13,123	13,105	14,002	13,486	13,788	13,647	14,788	13,674	14,210	13,892
Middle Atlantic	37,719	37,634	37,690	38,074	38,417	37,519	37,874	39,936	39,013	37,089	37,751	41,136
Midwest	60,288	60,205	60,296	60,723	60,528	61,342	61,815	64,231	59,696	61,997	62,744	66,824
East North Central	42,390	42,285	42,413	42,711	42,557	42,779	43,499	45,176	41,982	42,916	44,142	46,922
West North Central	17,898	17,920	17,884	18,012	17,971	18,563	18,316	19,055	17,714	19,081	18,602	19,902
South	86,517	86,644	86,489	85,998	95,575	95,382	94,483	91,750	103,529	102,577	101,008	96,318
South Atlantic	43,918	43,427	43,805	42,941	51,930	47,770	49,843	44,966	59,828	51,233	54,725	46,201
East South Central	15,567	15,577	15,583	15,548	16,242	16,603	16,636	16,419	16,616	17,447	17,504	17,063
West South Central	27,033	27,640	27,101	27,509	27,402	31,009	28,004	30,365	27,085	33,898	28,778	33,054
West	52,237	52,336	52,292	51,990	59,226	60,019	59,788	58,186	65,030	66,719	66,344	63,886
Mountain	13,673	13,808	13,704	13,635	15,207	15,922	15,326	15,048	16,383	17,670	16,650	16,396
Pacific	38,563	38,527	38,589	38,355	44,019	44,097	44,462	43,138	48,647	49,049	49,694	47,490
New England:												
Maine	1,236	1,226	1,234	1,217	1,344	1,313	1,359	1,262	1,430	1,369	1,453	1,284
New Hampshire	1,140	1,120	1,143	1,098	1,410	1,255	1,373	1,148	1,650	1,336	1,525	1,169
Vermont	571	565	569	565	619	594	619	593	658	609	654	607
Massachusetts	5,921	5,896	5,903	5,953	6,159	5,909	5,959	6,190	6,431	5,879	5,985	6,280
Rhode Island	998	997	1,003	1,004	1,048	1,010	1,046	1,049	1,105	1,016	1,078	1,074
Connecticut	3,266	3,268	3,271	3,268	3,422	3,405	3,432	3,405	3,514	3,464	3,515	3,478
Middle Atlantic:												
New York	17,868	17,847	17,846	18,184	17,966	17,548	17,563	19,412	18,129	17,204	17,259	20,328
New Jersey	7,808	7,800	7,820	7,818	8,382	8,119	8,238	8,229	8,846	8,249	8,455	8,477
Pennsylvania	12,043	11,987	12,024	12,072	12,069	11,852	12,073	12,295	12,038	11,636	12,037	12,331
East North Central:												
Ohio	10,907	10,869	10,909	10,973	10,930	10,869	11,096	11,436	10,803	10,795	11,183	11,720
Indiana	5,617	5,589	5,613	5,626	5,696	5,697	5,831	5,910	5,655	5,747	5,973	6,093
Illinois	11,682	11,671	11,676	11,829	11,722	11,856	11,887	12,765	11,571	11,949	12,000	13,519
Michigan	9,292	9,264	9,328	9,364	9,365	9,331	9,692	9,879	9,301	9,323	9,941	10,209
Wisconsin	4,892	4,892	4,886	4,919	4,844	5,027	4,993	5,185	4,652	5,102	5,045	5,381
West North Central:												
Minnesota	4,377	4,360	4,371	4,378	4,566	4,568	4,615	4,672	4,632	4,706	4,773	4,895
Iowa	2,814	2,833	2,808	2,870	2,549	2,808	2,671	3,013	2,251	2,783	2,555	3,123
Missouri	5,207	5,195	5,212	5,200	5,473	5,425	5,495	5,434	5,665	5,619	5,708	5,604
North Dakota	658	673	657	678	596	698	615	728	531	721	588	776
South Dakota	716	718	715	724	715	746	723	775	704	777	732	827
Nebraska	1,604	1,614	1,601	1,627	1,539	1,660	1,583	1,730	1,443	1,701	1,563	1,819
Kansas	2,522	2,526	2,521	2,535	2,534	2,658	2,613	2,703	2,488	2,775	2,683	2,858
South Atlantic:												
Delaware	682	669	679	669	802	706	760	704	933	736	826	720
Maryland	4,774	4,706	4,760	4,684	5,608	5,073	5,370	4,936	6,446	5,338	5,836	5,073
District of Columbia	603	607	605	625	595	588	586	660	625	599	601	681
Virginia	6,229	6,153	6,214	6,107	7,275	6,741	7,066	6,482	8,222	7,167	7,700	6,704
West Virginia	1,842	1,879	1,847	1,892	1,651	1,882	1,717	1,958	1,482	1,877	1,622	1,996
North Carolina	6,688	6,623	6,670	6,555	7,717	7,226	7,492	6,803	8,735	7,730	8,193	6,913
South Carolina	3,560	3,549	3,558	3,523	3,962	3,894	3,956	3,743	4,304	4,176	4,292	3,899
Georgia	6,595	6,521	6,594	6,444	8,005	7,329	7,733	6,882	9,378	7,990	8,671	7,201
Florida	12,942	12,720	12,878	12,442	16,315	14,330	15,162	12,798	19,702	15,620	16,984	13,013
East South Central:												
Kentucky	3,745	3,760	3,745	3,775	3,689	3,887	3,813	3,978	3,562	3,978	3,861	4,119
Tennessee	5,009	4,986	5,012	4,949	5,424	5,386	5,533	5,156	5,727	5,711	5,961	5,270
Alabama	4,165	4,170	4,174	4,156	4,358	4,474	4,498	4,383	4,469	4,732	4,777	4,553
Mississippi	2,649	2,662	2,652	2,668	2,772	2,856	2,791	2,902	2,858	3,026	2,905	3,121
West South Central:												
Arkansas	2,421	2,433	2,427	2,422	2,509	2,615	2,562	2,544	2,559	2,784	2,670	2,648
Louisiana	4,368	4,491	4,379	4,501	4,141	4,868	4,258	4,927	3,876	5,206	4,183	5,324
Oklahoma	3,190	3,303	3,193	3,283	2,924	3,624	3,042	3,481	2,660	3,936	2,980	3,668
Texas	17,053	17,414	17,103	17,303	17,828	19,903	18,142	19,413	17,990	21,972	18,946	21,414
Mountain:												
Montana	797	820	796	815	744	897	766	858	692	969	752	899
Idaho	1,013	1,039	1,012	1,029	1,008	1,202	1,056	1,156	985	1,339	1,097	1,286
Wyoming	468	501	468	493	409	582	430	550	366	640	413	608
Colorado	3,331	3,410	3,350	3,370	3,424	3,861	3,548	3,649	3,385	4,202	3,694	3,863
New Mexico	1,539	1,561	1,545	1,539	1,735	1,818	1,727	1,701	1,922	2,036	1,881	1,863
Arizona	3,666	3,611	3,673	3,548	4,633	4,149	4,457	3,809	5,537	4,610	5,086	4,030
Utah	1,729	1,761	1,736	1,766	1,845	2,082	1,929	2,166	1,879	2,360	2,085	2,622
Nevada	1,130	1,105	1,122	1,075	1,409	1,331	1,414	1,159	1,618	1,515	1,641	1,224
Pacific:												
Washington	4,797	4,802	4,796	4,728	5,191	5,535	5,477	5,076	5,369	6,187	6,060	5,363
Oregon	2,822	2,843	2,822	2,809	2,903	3,206	3,086	2,986	2,922	3,548	3,335	3,135
California	29,287	29,199	29,313	29,168	33,963	33,328	33,981	33,218	38,096	36,968	38,112	36,935
Alaska	525	549	525	539	599	655	550	614	669	730	578	688
Hawaii	1,133	1,134	1,132	1,111	1,362	1,373	1,368	1,244	1,590	1,615	1,608	1,369

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Series P-25, No. 1053. Issue date January 1990. Projections of the Population of States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1989 to 2010.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, BY REGIONS: 1790, 1840, 1890, 1940, AND 1989

Region	1790	1840	1890	1940	1989
POPULATION (in thousands)					
Total	3,929	17,063	62,980	132,165	248,239
North	1,968	10,113	39,817	76,120	110,920
Northeast	1,968	6,761	17,407	35,977	50,772
Midwest	--	3,352	22,410	40,143	60,148
South	1,961	6,951	20,028	41,666	85,523
West	--	--	3,134	14,379	51,796
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
North	50.1	59.3	63.2	57.6	44.7
Northeast	50.1	39.6	27.6	27.2	20.5
Midwest	--	19.6	35.6	30.4	24.2
South	49.9	40.7	31.8	31.5	34.5
West	--	--	5.0	10.9	20.9

TEN MOST POPULOUS STATES: 1790, 1840, 1890, 1940, AND 1989

-- Current boundaries. Population in thousands. --

Rank		1790		1840		1890		1940		1989
1	VA	*692	NY	2,429	NY	6,003	NY	13,479	CA	29,063
2	PA	434	PA	1,724	PA	5,258	PA	9,900	NY	17,950
3	NC	394	OH	1,519	IL	3,826	IL	7,897	TX	16,991
4	MA	**379	VA	***1,025	OH	3,672	OH	6,908	FL	12,671
5	NY	340	TN	829	MO	2,679	CA	6,907	PA	12,040
6	MD	320	KY	780	MA	2,239	TX	6,415	IL	11,658
7	SC	249	NC	753	TX	2,236	MI	5,256	OH	10,907
8	CT	238	MA	738	IN	2,192	MA	4,317	MI	9,273
9	NJ	184	GA	691	MI	2,094	NJ	4,160	NJ	7,736
10	NH	142	IN	686	IA	1,912	MO	3,785	NC	6,571

*748 including present State of West Virginia, formed in 1863.

**475 including present State of Maine, formed in 1820.

***1,250 including present State of West Virginia, formed in 1863.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You. Bicentennial Issue, August 1990.

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HOW WE'RE CHANGING:
Demographic State Of The Nation, 1989

The material on this page and the next three has been reprinted from U.S. Bureau of the Census Current Population Reports, Special Studies, Series P-23, No. 164. January 1990.

Our population is growing by about 1 percent per year.

On January 1, 1990, we estimate that the resident population of the United States was 249.6 million, about 2.5 million higher than the 1989 New Year's Day figure. Since the 1980 census, our population has increased by 23.1 million, or 10.2 percent.

In 1989, the Nation had about 3.9 million births, 2.1 million deaths, and a net immigration of 700,000. Births since 1985 have been at their highest level since the mid-1960's.

March 1989 estimates, which are restricted to the civilian noninstitutional population, show 29.7 million Blacks, 12.3 percent of the total population. At the same date, there were 20.1 million Hispanics (who may be of any race), 8.3 percent of the total population. (Data on the White and Black populations are based on a race question; data on the Hispanic population are based on an ethnic origin question.)

Our growth will slow and possibly stop within 50 years.

Using the middle series projection, we see the population peaking at about 302 million in 2038, and then declining slowly. Long term, we assume 1.8 births per woman, an average life span of 81 years, and an annual net immigration of 500,000.

The lowest series projects that the population will peak at 265 million in 2016, and the highest series sees an increase to 278 million in 2000 and to 388 million in 2040. The long-term assumptions for the lowest series are 1.5 births, a 78-year life span, and 300,000 net immigration; for the highest series, they are 2.2 births, an 88-year life span, and 800,000 immigration.

The elderly population will increase at a moderate rate until about 2010. Then, the 1946-64 Baby Boom generation will begin to enter the 65-and-over age group and accelerate the elderly rate of growth (figure 1).

The South and West are our most rapidly growing regions.

These two regions experienced 87 percent of our Nation's growth between 1980 and 1989; 90 percent of our growth in the 1970's was concentrated in these areas, compared with 61 percent in the 1960's. The proportion of the population living in the South and West rose from 48 percent in 1970 to 52 percent in 1980 to 55 percent in 1989.

Fifty-one percent of this decade's growth has occurred in California, Texas, and Florida (up from 42 percent in the 1970's and 32 percent in the 1960's). In 1989, 11.7 percent of U.S. residents lived in California—the highest concentration in one State since 1860, when 12.3 percent lived in New York. California alone had more residents in 1989 (29.1 million) than did the 21 least populous States combined.

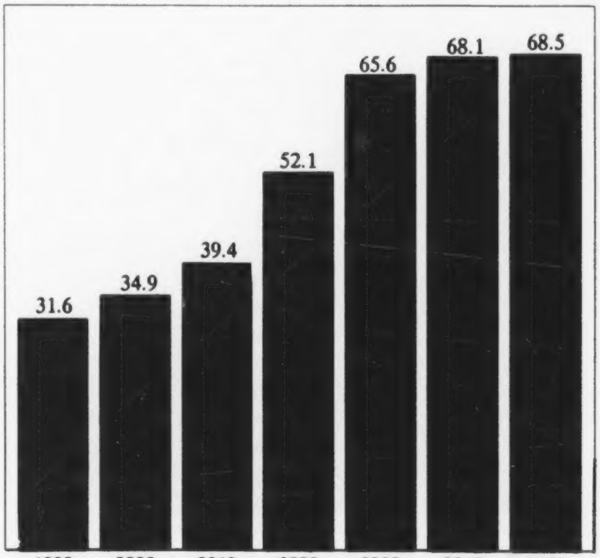

Figure 1.
Projections of the Elderly Population: 1990 to 2050
(Middle Series projections, in millions)

continued →

HOW WE'RE CHANGING continued

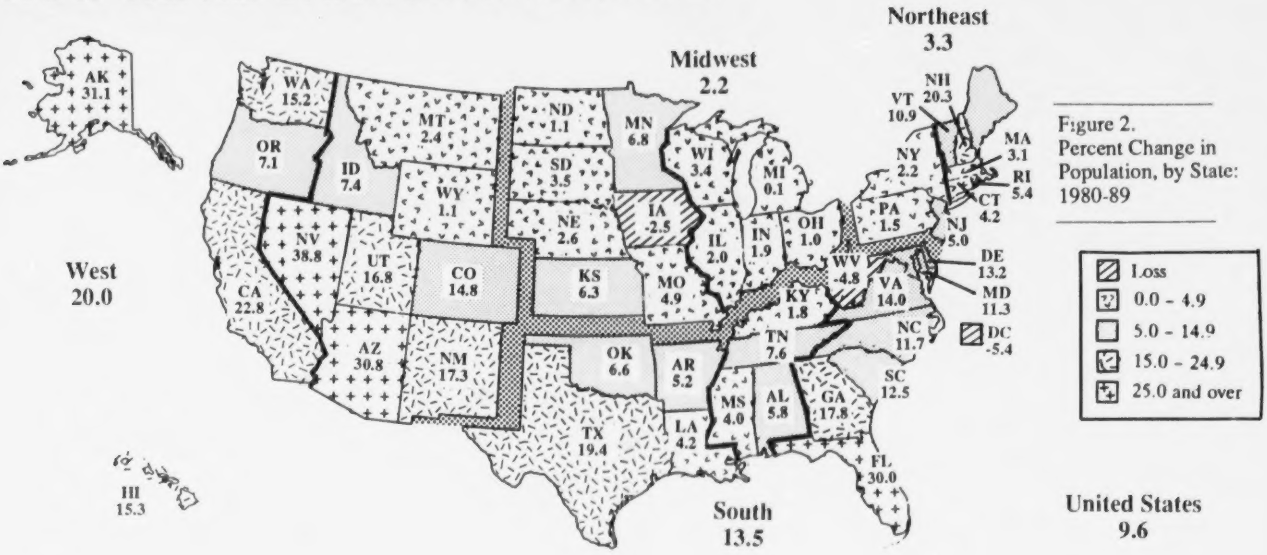
Northeast 3.3
Midwest 2.2
West 20.0
South 13.5
United States 9.6
AK 31.1
WA 15.2
OR 7.1
ID 7.4
MT 2.4
WY 1.1
NV 38.8
UT 16.8
CA 22.8
CO 14.8
AZ 30.8
NM 17.3
ND 1.1
SD 3.5
NE 2.6
KS 6.3
OK 6.6
TX 19.4
MN 6.8
IA -2.5
MO 4.9
AR 5.2
LA 4.2
WI 3.4
IL 2.0
MI 0.1
IN 1.9
OH 1.0
KY 1.8
TN 7.6
MS 4.0
AL 5.8
GA 17.8
FL 30.0
SC 12.5
NC 11.7
VA 14.0
WV -4.8
PA 1.5
NY 2.2
VT 10.9
NH 20.3
MA 3.1
RI 5.4
CT 4.2
NJ 5.0
DE 13.2
MD 11.3
DC -5.4
HI 15.3
▨ Loss
0.0 - 4.9
5.0 - 14.9
15.0 - 24.9
25.0 and over

Figure 2.
Percent Change in Population, by State: 1980-89

Nevada, Alaska, and Arizona grew the fastest between 1980 and 1989; only West Virginia, Iowa, and the District of Columbia lost population during that time (figure 2).

Population growth is concentrated in metropolitan areas.

In 1988, 77 percent of all Americans lived in the 283 designated metropolitan areas. These areas grew by 9.7 percent between 1980 and 1988, while the nonmetropolitan population increased by just 4.5 percent.

Forty-nine percent of the Nation's population lived in the 37 metropolitan areas with 1 million or more people. The most rapid growth between 1980 and 1988 in these areas occurred in Phoenix (34.5 percent), Dallas-Ft. Worth (28.5 percent), and Atlanta (28 percent). The largest numerical growth was in Los Angeles (2.3 million), followed by Dallas-Ft. Worth (835,000).

The long decline of the farm population has stopped.

Our farm population was 5 million in 1988, unchanged from the 1987 figure. Between 1940 and 1980, the number of Americans living on farms dropped from 31 million to 6 million.

In 1988, 51 percent of the farm population lived in the Midwest, and 30 percent lived in the South. In 1950, the situation was reversed: 32 percent lived in the Midwest, and 52 percent lived in the South.

Average household size reaches a record low.

The average number of people per household in 1989 was 2.62, compared with 2.76 in 1980 and 3.14 in 1970.

There were 92.8 million households in 1989, up by 15 percent since 1980. Seventy-one percent of these households contained families, down from 74 percent in 1980 and 81 percent in 1970. (Families have at least two members, including at least one relative of the householder.)

Figure 3 shows that the composition of these family households varies greatly among Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics.

Nonfamily households increased rapidly from 11.9 million in 1970 to 21.2 million in 1980 and more slowly to 27 million in 1989. Currently, people living alone account for 84 percent of these nonfamily situations.

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10 Largest Metropolitan Areas in 1988 and Percent Change, 1980-88

(Population in thousands. Identified by first city in official title. 1980 rank in parentheses)

New York (1)	18,120	3.3%
Los Angeles (2)	13,770	19.8%
Chicago (3)	8.181	3.1%
San Francisco (5)	6,042	12.6%
Philadelphia (4)	5,963	5.0%
Detroit (6)	4,620	-2.8%
Boston (7)	4,110	3.5%
Dallas (10)	3,766	28.5%
Washington (8)	3,734	14.9%
Houston (9)	3,642	17.5%

10 Largest Cities in 1988 and Percent Change, 1980-88

(Population in thousands. 1980 rank in parentheses)

New York, NY (1)	7,353	4.0%
Los Angeles, CA (3)	3,353	12.9%
Chicago, IL (2)	2,978	-0.9%
Houston, TX (5)	1,698	6.5%
Philadelphia, PA (4)	1,647	-2.4%
San Diego, CA (8)	1,070	22.2%
Detroit, MI (6)	1,036	-13.9%
Dallas, TX (7)	987	9.1%
San Antonio, TX (11)	941	19.7%
Phoenix, AZ (9)	924	17.0%

continued →

HOW WE'RE CHANGING continued

Women with newborns have increased their labor force participation.

In 1988, 51 percent of women 18 to 44 years old with infants under 1 year old were in the labor force, compared with 38 percent in 1980 and 31 percent in 1976. Women with less than a high school education increased their rate from 26 percent in 1976 to 34 percent in 1988. Women who were college graduates saw their rate jump from 39 percent to 60 percent during the same period.

In 1988, 33 percent of all births were to women in their thirties, compared with only 19 percent in 1976. This change reflects not only the increased birth rates to women in this age group, but also the large numbers of Baby Boomers now of childbearing age. The overall fertility rate has not changed significantly since 1976, however, and the average number of lifetime births expected by women 18 to 34 years old has remained between 2.0 and 2.1 during the past decade.

Voter turnout hit a new low in the Presidential election.

Only 57 percent of the voting-age population reported that they went to the polls in November 1988. This reported rate was down from 60 percent in 1984, and well below the 69 percent reported in 1964, the first year that the Census Bureau collected data on voting. (Reported voting rates tend to be high; the actual figure in 1988 was about 50 percent.)

Voting rates vary widely by people's characteristics. In 1988, the reported rates were 59 percent for Whites and 52 percent for Blacks. The rate was 29 percent for Hispanics (37 percent of Hispanics surveyed were not U.S. citizens, so they were ineligible to register). People 45 and over voted at a rate of 68 percent, compared with 36 percent for 18- to 24-year-olds. College graduates reported a rate of 78 percent, while people with 8 or fewer years of school had a rate of 37 percent.

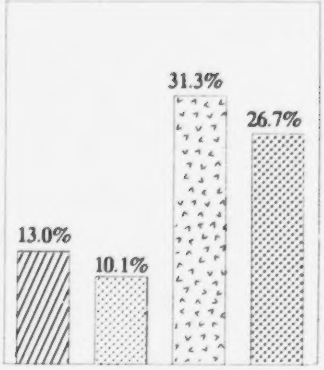


Figure 4.
Poverty Rate for Persons, by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1988

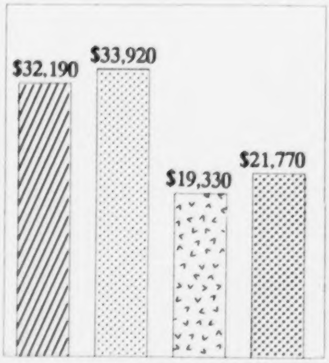
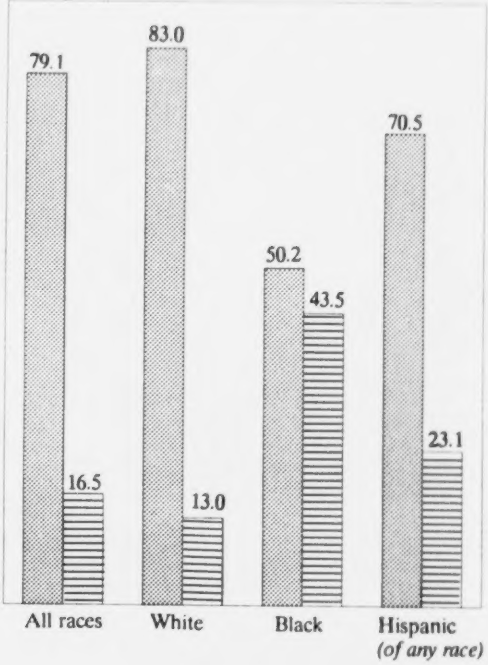


Figure 5.
Median Family Income, by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1988

Figure 3.
Percent of Families, by Type, for Race and Hispanic Origin: 1989



Poverty and median family income are unchanged in 1988.

There were 31.7 million people below the official government poverty level in 1988—13.0 percent of the population. These figures, revisions of estimates published earlier, are not significantly different from those for 1987. Median family income in 1988 ($32,190) also was not significantly different from the 1987 figure after adjusting for the 4.1 percent increase in consumer prices. The 1988 poverty and income data for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics are shown in figures 4 and 5; they also are not significantly different from those in 1987.

continued →

FOCUS Section

HOW WE'RE CHANGING continued

Real per capita income increased by 1.7 percent between 1987 and 1988—it reached a record high of $13,120. At the same time, real median earnings of men working year-round, full-time dropped by 1.3 percent in 1988 to $26,660; their female counterparts' earnings ($17,610) did not change significantly. The ratio of female to male earnings was .66 in 1988, up from .60 in 1980.

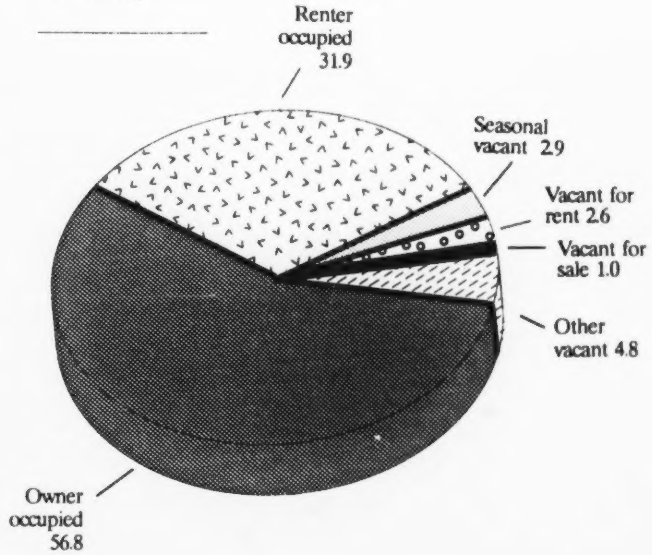
(Income and poverty figures are based on pre-tax money income before deductions and without noncash benefits.)

Homeownership rate holds steady in 1989.

In the third quarter of 1989, owners lived in 64 percent of occupied housing units, unchanged from the rate a year earlier, but lower than the third quarter 1980 rate of 66 percent. The rental vacancy rate was 7.3 percent in the third quarter of 1989, down from 7.8 percent a year earlier. The homeowner vacancy rate has remained in the 1-2 percent range during the 1980's.

There were 105.5 million housing units in the Nation in the third quarter of 1989: 93.6 million (88.7 percent) were occupied and 11.9 million (11.3 percent) were vacant (figure 6).

Percent Distribution of Total Housing Inventory



For further information, call (301):

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National projections:
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Source and Accuracy of Estimates

The data presented here are from the population estimates and projections program and the Current Population Survey. All statistics are subject to sampling variability when based on a survey as well as to survey design errors, respondent classification and reporting errors, and data processing mistakes. The Census Bureau has taken steps to minimize errors, and statistical statements have been tested and meet statistical standards. Further information can be found in detailed reports. ◆

AT THE WORLD SUMMIT FOR CHILDREN, LEADERS FROM MORE THAN 70 NATIONS ENDORSE PLAN TO IMPROVE LIVES OF CHILDREN

Following are three excerpts from the September 30, 1990 United Nations Declaration on Children

We have gathered at the World Summit for Children to undertake a joint commitment and to make an urgent universal appeal -- give every child a better future.

The children of the world are innocent, vulnerable and dependent. They are also curious, active and full of hope. Their time should be one of joy and peace, of playing, learning and growing. Their future should be shaped in harmony and cooperation. Their lives should mature, as they broaden their perspectives and gain new experience.

But for many children, the reality of childhood is altogether different.

The Challenge

Each day, countless children around the world are exposed to dangers that hamper their growth and development. They suffer immensely as casualties of war and violence; as victims of racial discrimination, apartheid, aggression, foreign occupation and annexation; as refugees and displaced children, forced to abandon their homes and their roots; as disabled; or as victims of neglect, cruelty and exploitation.

Each day, millions of children suffer from the scourges of poverty and economic crisis -- from hunger and homelessness, from epidemics and illiteracy, from degradation of the environment. They suffer from the grave effects of the problems of external indebtedness and also from the lack of sustained and sustainable growth in many developing countries particularly the least developed ones.

Each day, 40,000 children die from malnutrition and disease, including acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), from the lack of clean water and inadequate sanitation and from the effects of the drug problem.

These are challenges that we, as political leaders, must meet....

The Next Steps

The World Summit for Children has presented us with a challenge to take action. We have agreed to take up that challenge.

Among the partnerships we seek, we turn especially to children themselves. We appeal to them to participate in this effort.

We also seek the support of the United Nations system, as well as other international and regional organizations, in the universal effort to promote the well-being of children. We ask for greater involvement on the part of non-governmental organizations, in complementing national efforts and joint international action in this field.

We have decided to adopt and implement a Plan of Action, as a framework for more specific national and international undertakings. We appeal to all our colleagues to endorse that Plan. We are prepared to make available the resources to meet these commitments, as part of the priorities of our national plans.

We do this not only for the present generation, but for all generations to come. There can be no task nobler than giving every child a better future....

Following are two excerpts from remarks by leaders at the World Summit for Children:

Brian Mulroney, Prime Minister of Canada

Resources always seem to be scarce. The "peace dividend" many expected from the end of the Cold War has already been diluted by aggression in the Persian Gulf. Once again, the neediest children have lost -- in large measure because so few voices among the powerful have spoken out strongly on their behalf.

Today may represent the beginning of a change in the lives of the world's children. Today, in this hall, they may finally have found the voices and the friends they have long been seeking. With all the demands on governments to fund worthwhile activities, there will never be enough money to do everything and priorities will have to be established and difficult choices made. Funding is important but it is not, in the end, the decisive factor in the war on child suffering. Political will is.

Javier Perez de Cuellar, Secretary General of the United Nations

Poverty, I repeat, is the main enemy of children. Hunger, disease, illiteracy, despair -- these constitute the enemy's fearful train. There is no way in which issues relating to children can be segregated from the issues of the overall social and economic environment.

We now have a unique opportunity to establish a world order which encompasses not only the maintenance of peace and security but also the better management of the world's economic and social affairs. With the ideological gulf bridged, the removal of the disparity between the North and South demands a high-level dialogue. Such a dialogue should aim at a global consensus. The moving concern which has occasioned this summit meeting must now guide the international community in that endeavor.

As cited in The New York Times,
October 1, 1990. Pp. A12 & A13.

NOW AVAILABLE: CURRICULUM AND MATERIALS FOR TEACHING NEGOTIATION SKILLS TO HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

The following text has been prepared by the Harvard Negotiation Project. Address and telephone number are at end of text.

In response to the urgent need our young people have for dealing more effectively with their differences, Roger Fisher, Professor of Law at Harvard Law School and co-author of the best-selling Getting to YES, and Douglas Stone of the Harvard Negotiation Project have developed a curriculum and materials for teaching negotiation skills to high school students. The curriculum, called the Building Bridges Curriculum, is designed to be implemented easily, and is intended to have an immediate, real-world impact on the way young people handle conflict. The Curriculum will also help students to understand social and international conflict, and prepare them one day to assist in the peaceful resolution of these conflicts.

Because negotiation and non-quantitative problem solving are not standard courses for which slots already appear in high school curricula, we have developed the Building Bridges Curriculum as a five to ten hour unit which can be inserted into other courses such as social studies, life skills, business and current events. We are also developing a one semester course for those schools wishing to offer negotiation as an elective.

The following are some highlights of the Building Bridges Curriculum:

The Curriculum is student-taught. One of our most exciting innovations is that the workshops are entirely student-facilitated. So, for example, in one pilot program at Westwood High School near Boston, we pre-trained twelve juniors and seniors in negotiation and facilitation skills (for a total of eight hours). These twelve students were able to train the entire sophomore class. Having student facilitators has many advantages. First, it provides leadership training for the students who facilitate. They have the rare experience of standing up in front of their peers and leading discussion, and helping people to learn from each other. Second, student-led classrooms provide all students involved a greater sense of ownership over the experience than if they were teacher-led. It is often easier for a student to hear new ways, for example, to relate to one's parents when the suggestions are coming from other students. Students at the Westwood pilot were nearly unanimous in their endorsement of this delivery method. And third, having student-facilitated workshops allows the Negotiation Project to reach huge numbers of students. We can train one teacher, who in turn can train thirty student facilitators, who in turn can train the entire school.

Students learn by doing. Our curriculum stresses active learning. It's centered around a series of role plays in which each student negotiates with another student, one on one, based on a set of confidential instructions. In one role play, for example, we provide students with confidential instructions which tell the story of a conflict between two students in such a way that each student is sure that he or she is in the right. Mid-way through the negotiation, we surprise the students by asking them to read the other's instructions, and to reverse roles. It is a powerful demonstration of how our partisan perceptions influence our thoughts and behaviors. Students almost invariably find the stimulations challenging, engaging and fun, and often report that they remember the details of negotiations in which they participated years after the negotiations took place. Like riding a bike, the lessons drawn from the role plays are lessons students are unlikely ever to forget.

As a supplement to the role-plays, students will read from a short handbook on negotiation which emphasizes many of the concepts set forth in Getting to YES. An excerpt from this handbook is included below.

continued ⟶

TEACHING NEGOTIATION SKILLS continued

Role plays aid non-traditional learners. Role plays provide a powerful method of reaching students who are non-traditional learners, turned off by more passive teaching methods. They involve discussion, laughter, argument and acting, and provide a nice break from the daily routine of sitting quietly as the teacher lectures. Students who have never been successful in a traditional learning environment may find that they excel at role playing; for some, this accomplishment in an unexpected place (at school) will provide a profound boost in self-confidence and may change the way they view themselves and their school.

Students learn the tools of problem-solving. Through readings, exercises and class discussion, students are provided with a set of essential problem-solving tools that will help them deal with conflict. Students will learn to:

- focus on underlying interests and not on positions or demands;
- invent solutions that are good for both sides;
- use legitimacy and persuasion rather than force, will or violence;
- to listen; and
- to become aware of the role emotions play in negotiations and conflict.

Negotiation skills are a source of empowerment. Teenagers often believe and act as if they have little or no control over events which affect their lives. When confronted by difficult issues, a sense of hopelessness can set in. How do I let my boyfriend know the boundaries of our romantic involvement? How do I discuss the racial stereotyping I feel from a classmate? How do I let my employer know that I no longer think my salary is fair? How do I discuss my disappointing grades with my parents? Students who master the tools of problem solving learn that even these difficult problems can be successfully handles. They learn that they have choices other than aggression and violence on the one hand, and passive acceptance on the other.

Students learn a framework for placing conflict into a larger context. As students master the skills involved in dealing successfully with differences, they also develop a framework that relates the problems they confront in their world, to the problems they read about in the newspaper and see on television. Students will see the relationship between choices they must make and the choices made by those who shape our society and our world. When the time comes for them to confront the world's problems, they will be equipped to make choices wiser than those made by their parents' generation.

WHAT THE FUTURE HOLDS

Our goal is to bring the Building Bridges Curriculum to an ever-wider circle of students. We hope eventually to hold a series of seminars to expose teachers around the country to problem-solving negotiation methods, to train them so that they can train the student facilitators. As stated earlier, one teacher versed in negotiation and facilitation skills can transfer this knowledge to the entire student body. In addition, we will be developing self-contained written training materials, to enable any teacher to teach negotiation, whether or not he or she has had prior exposure to the materials. Our ultimate goal is to make the Building Bridges Curriculum available to every high school in the country.

If you are interested in learning more about the curriculum, please contact Douglas Stone at: Harvard Negotiation Project, Harvard Law School, Cambridge MA 02138. Telephone (617) 495-1684.❖

SHARES OF KEY U.S. COMMODITIES IN GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

The United States will account for a larger share of world wheat, soybeans, and coarse grains production this fiscal year (ending September 30, 1990), according to USDA estimates. In the cotton sector, however, the U.S. share of production is expected to be lower.

In share of exports, the United States is expected to show increases in coarse grains and cotton, remain about the same in soybeans, and lose some ground in wheat. The U.S. shares of coarse grains and soybean exports are expected to be above 60 percent, while the shares of wheat and cotton are both near 30 percent.

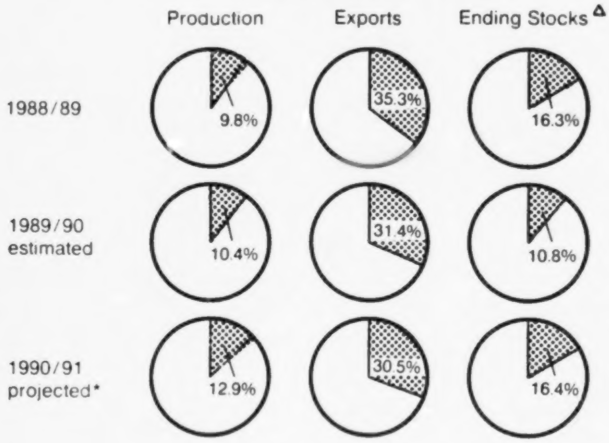
U.S. stocks in most categories are falling more rapidly than world stocks. Wheat stocks this year are estimated to be down 36 percent in this country but only 3 percent worldwide.

Coarse grains stocks are likely to fall by 33 percent here and 21 percent for all countries. U.S. cotton stocks are expected to drop by 55 percent while world stocks are down by 23 percent. Soybean stocks are bucking the trend, estimated to be higher both in the United States and worldwide.

For 1990/91, projections are that the U.S. shares of production of wheat, coarse grains, and cotton will be up from this year, the U.S. shares of exports of wheat, coarse grains, and cotton will be down, and the U.S. shares of stocks will be up for wheat and cotton but down for feed grains. (Projections on 1990/91 soybeans have not been made yet.)

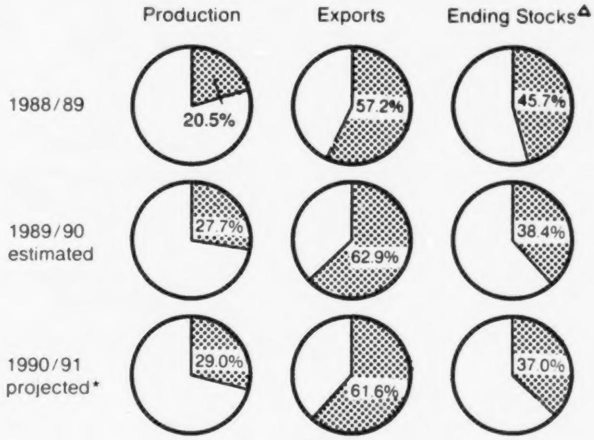
Wheat

U.S. Share of World Wheat:



Coarse Grains

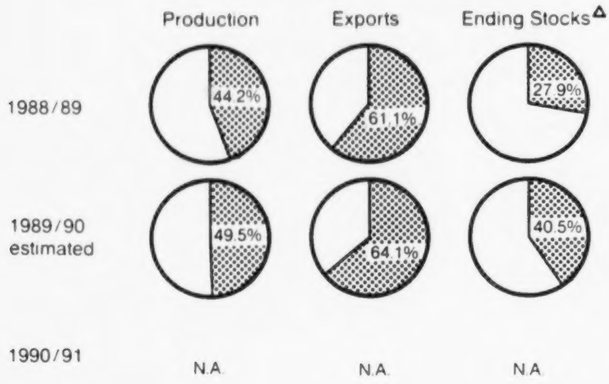
U.S. Share of World Coarse Grain:



Includes corn, sorghum, barley, oats, rye, millet, and mixed grain.

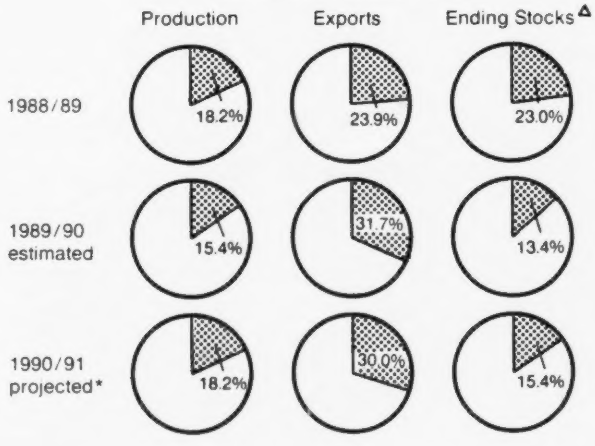
Soybeans

U.S. Share of World Soybean:



Cotton

U.S. Share of World Cotton:



N.A. = not available.
*Based on USDA's mid-June world supply-demand estimates.
△Ending stocks are year-end inventories.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. FARMLINE, August 1990. P.17.

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A HELPFUL OVERVIEW OF U.S. FARM POLICIES

One of the major objectives of U.S. agricultural policy is to support U.S. farm income, and the chief domestic programs designed to do this are linked to production. The Commodity Credit Corporation (CCC) was created in the 1930's to help maintain farm income by giving loans to producers of certain commodities, including grains, who participate in stabilization programs. The amount of a loan is based on the amount of the crop provided as collateral and a set dollar value per unit of production, called the loan rate.

If, when the loan matures, the market price of the crop is too low to make loan repayment profitable, the farmer can forfeit the crop to the CCC. Under the terms of the loan, the CCC has no recourse to collect any more of the loan—hence the term "nonrecourse" loan. "The program acts to support a minimum price for program commodities in times of excess production," says ERS economist Mark E. Smith, "because the Government buys supplies that producers enrolled in the program cannot sell."

Deficiency payments are those the Government makes to farmers who participate in wheat, feed grain, rice, or cotton programs. The deficiency payment rate is based on the difference between a price set by law (the target price) and either the market price for a period specified by law or the loan rate, whichever is higher. A particular farmer's total payment equals the payment rate, times the eligible acreage planted for harvest, times the program yield established for that farm.

"When U.S. prices are held at a higher level than that which would enable the market to clear, it prompts both domestic and foreign producers to boost production," explains Smith. "It can also lead to inefficient allocation of resources in the United States and other countries, because it encourages producers to shift more resources to agricultural production than they otherwise would."

Oversupplies also increase the costs of these programs to the Government by heightening both deficiency payments and the costs associated with loan defaults, crop forfeitures, and CCC storage. Indeed, the CCC has at times acquired massive stock surpluses.

Because the funds farmers can obtain through nonrecourse loans and deficiency payments are linked to crop size, these programs encourage production and can provide an incentive to overproduce certain commodities. Therefore, to control the buildup of surpluses, participants are often required to idle land or limit acreage to be eligible for loans and deficiency payments.

The Acreage Reduction Program, for example, helps prevent oversupply by requiring producers who opt for loans and deficiency payments to idle a specific portion of their acreage. Producers who voluntarily idle some of their acreage may also receive payments under the paid land diversion program.

Over the years, the Government has also used various measures to reduce the stocks already in CCC storage, including donations to domestic food programs, direct domestic and foreign commercial sales, and payments-in-kind.

In 1977, the CCC instituted the farmer-owned reserve (FOR), which extends nonrecourse loans to farmers for up to 3 years and pays them to store grain in private bins. The FOR enlarged the stocks the Government controls without actually taking possession of them.

One way to reduce supplies and bolster world food security is to export some of the surplus as food aid. PL 480, the common name for the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954, was originally intended to promote exports of surplus stocks and stimulate trade. But in the years since its passage, PL 480 has become increasingly focused on foreign economic development and humanitarian assistance.

In 1980, Congress passed the Food Security Wheat Reserve Act, authorizing the establishment of a 4-million-ton reserve to meet emergency humanitarian food needs in developing countries. ❖

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline, September 1990. P. 4. Mark E. Smith's telephone number: (202) 786-1820.

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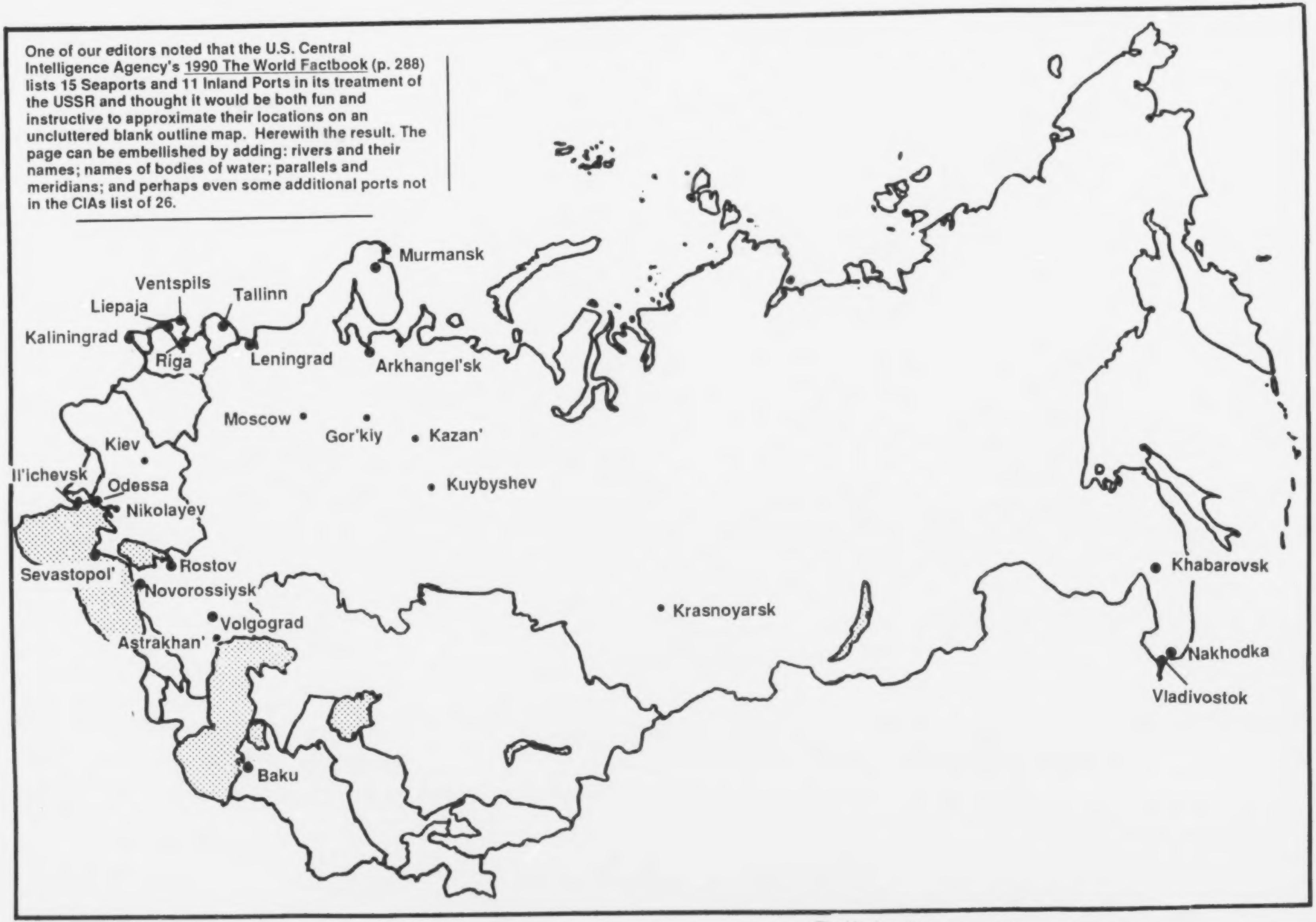
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

26 SEAPORTS AND INLAND PORTS OF THE USSR

One of our editors noted that the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's 1990 The World Factbook (p. 288) lists 15 Seaports and 11 Inland Ports in its treatment of the USSR and thought it would be both fun and instructive to approximate their locations on an uncluttered blank outline map. Herewith the result. The page can be embellished by adding: rivers and their names; names of bodies of water; parallels and meridians; and perhaps even some additional ports not in the CIAs list of 26.


Murmansk
Ventspils
Tallinn
Liepaja
Kaliningrad
Riga
Leningrad
Arkhangel'sk
Moscow
Gor'kiy
Kazan'
Kiev
Il'ichevsk
Odessa
Nikolayev
Kuybyshev
Rostov
Sevastopol'
Novorossiysk
Volgograd
Astrakhan'
Krasnoyarsk
Khabarovsk
Nakhodka
Vladivostok
Baku

The blank outline map used here was based on a map by U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, January 1985. No scale of miles was provided.

NUMBER OF BLACK BUSINESS FIRMS UP 38 PERCENT 1982-1987

The number of Black business firms in the United States increased from 308,000 in 1982 to 424,000 in 1987, a 38 percent rise, according to a survey by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

All U.S. firms rose 14 percent, from 12 million to 13.7 million during the same period, the survey showed.

Receipts for Black firms increased by 105 percent, from $9.6 billion to $19.8 billion. Receipts for all firms rose 106 percent, from $967.5 billion to $1,994.8 billion.

About 3 percent of the nation's firms were Black owned in 1987, and generated 1 percent of U.S. business receipts for that year.

Some 94 percent of Black firms were sole proprietorships in 1987. Partnerships and subchapter S corporations each comprised 3 percent. (A subchapter S corporation is a special IRS designation for legally incorporated businesses with 35 or fewer shareholders who, because of tax advantages, elect to be taxed as individual shareholders rather than as corporations.)

Receipts per firm averaged $47,000 for Black-owned firms, compared with $146,000 for all U.S. firms. Fifty-four percent of Black firms had receipts under $10,000; fewer than 2,000 had sales of $1 million or more.

The survey also shows that 17 percent of Black-owned firms which had paid employees, accounted for $2 billion in gross receipts or about 14 percent of the total receipts of all Black-owned employer firms.

Service industries made up about half of all Black-owned firms and 31 percent of gross receipts, while retail trade businesses accounted for 16 percent of firms and 30 percent of receipts.

The 10 industry groups with the largest dollar volume of receipts in 1987 were automotive dealers and service stations ($2.2 billion); business services ($1.6 billion); health services ($1.4 billion), special trade contractors ($1.3 billion); miscellaneous retail ($1.1 billion); eating and drinking places ($1.1 billion); trucking and warehousing ($1.0 billion); food stores ($1.0 billion); personal services ($1.0 billion); and wholesale trade, nondurable goods ($700 million).

The 10 metropolitan areas with the largest number of Black-owned firms accounted for 36 percent of the national Black total and 36 percent of gross receipts by Black businesses. The 10 metro areas*, in rank order, were: New York, NY PMSA; Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA PMSA; Washington, DC-MD-VA MSA; Chicago, IL PMSA; Houston, TX PMSA; Atlanta, GA MSA; Philadelphia, PA-NJ PMSA; Detroit, MI PMSA; Baltimore, MD MSA; and Dallas, TX PMSA.

* PMSA = Primary Metropolitan Statistical Area
MSA = Metropolitan Statistical Area

Separate reports on businesses by women, Hispanics, and a combined report on Asian Americans, American Indians, and other minorities, will be issued later.

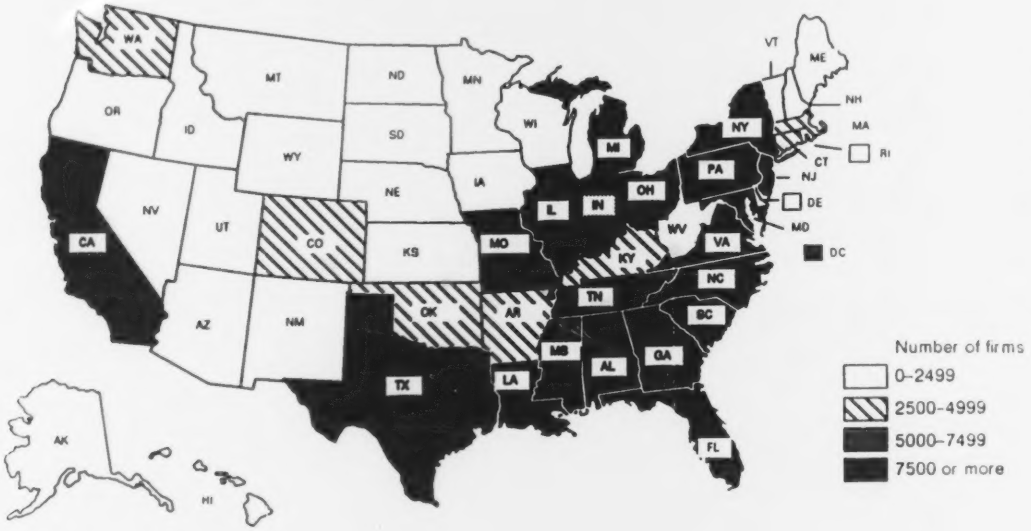
Copies of the report, the 1987 Survey of Minority-Owned Business Enterprises, Minority-Owned Businesses-Black, MB87-1, are available for $8.50 each prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. The GPO stock number is 003-024-06935-1. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-163, September 12, 1990.

continued →

BLACK BUSINESS FIRMS continued

Distribution of Black-Owned Firms by State: 1987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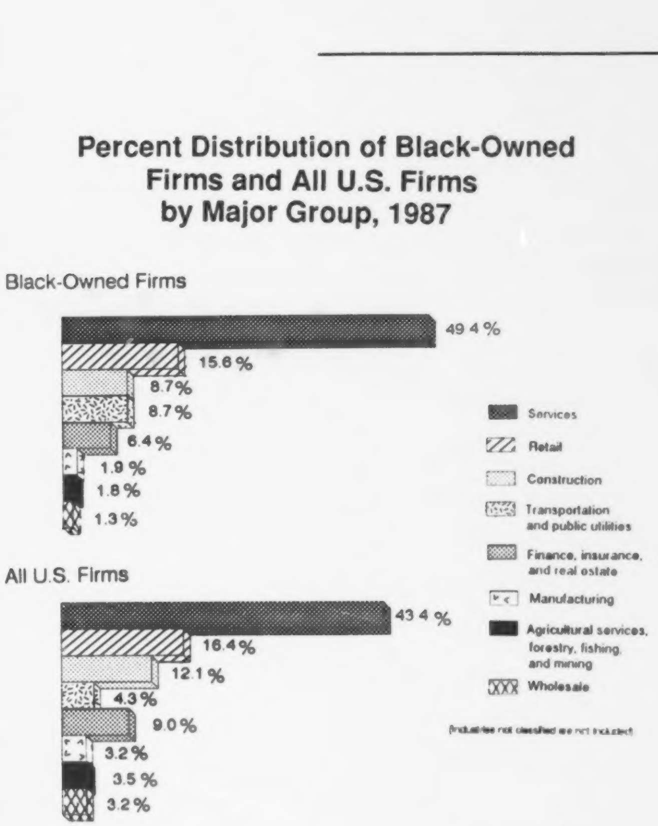
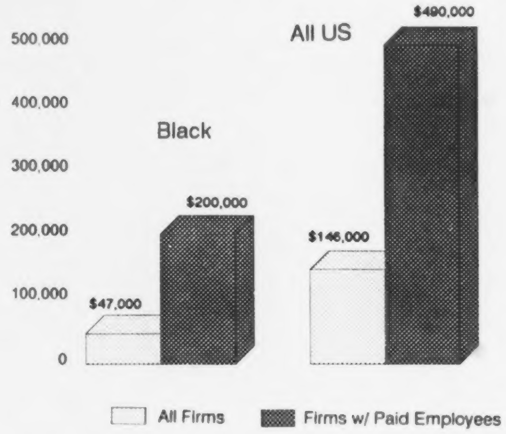
MI
IN
OH
KY
TN
MS
AL
GA
FL
SC
NC
VA
WV
PA
NY
VT
ME
NH
MA
RI
CT
NJ
DE
MD
DC
AK
HI
Number of firms
0–2499
2500–4999
5000–7499
7500 or more

Percent Distribution of Black-Owned Firms and All U.S. Firms by Major Group, 1987



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1987 Survey of Minority-Owned Business Enterprises, MB87-1

Average Receipts per Firm for Black-Owned Firms and All U.S. Firms: 1987



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-163, September 12, 1990.

continued

BLACK BUSINESS FIRMS continued

Black-Owned Firms Compared To All U.S. Firms by State: 1987

State	Black Firms (number)	All U.S. Firms (number)	Black as a Percent of All	Black Sales and Receipts ($ millions)	All U.S. Sales and Receipts ($ millions)	Black as a Percent of All
United States	424,165	13,695,480	3.10%	19,763	1,994,808	0.99%
Alabama	10,085	178,119	5.66%	440	26,519	1.66%
Alaska	507	48,784	1.04%	14	4,983	0.28%
Arizona	1,811	191,908	0.94%	91	22,698	0.40%
Arkansas	4,392	134,766	3.26%	215	13,739	1.56%
California	47,728	1,809,252	2.64%	2,364	246,406	0.96%
Colorado	2,871	262,597	1.09%	106	27,018	0.39%
Connecticut	4,061	196,537	2.07%	226	35,024	0.65%
Delaware	1,399	30,976	4.52%	78	4,662	1.67%
D.C.	8,275	29,244	28.30%	412	6,509	6.33%
Florida	25,527	735,810	3.47%	1,212	99,289	1.22%
Georgia	21,283	305,382	6.97%	1,180	48,818	2.42%
Hawaii	399	60,928	0.65%	12	6,522	0.18%
Idaho	94	68,006	0.14%	5	6,524	0.08%
Illinois	19,011	573,973	3.31%	1,100	99,147	1.11%
Indiana	5,867	294,570	1.99%	350	50,672	0.69%
Iowa	703	174,121	0.40%	45	18,199	0.25%
Kansas	2,323	169,593	1.37%	154	17,086	0.90%
Kentucky	3,738	193,806	1.93%	120	22,732	0.53%
Louisiana	15,331	204,723	7.49%	532	21,473	2.48%
Maine	131	88,208	0.15%	5	10,407	0.05%
Maryland	21,678	244,071	8.88%	720	41,392	1.74%
Massachusetts	4,761	356,780	1.33%	252	66,364	0.38%
Michigan	13,708	426,656	3.21%	701	63,900	1.10%
Minnesota	1,448	280,249	0.52%	125	34,852	0.36%
Mississippi	9,667	112,245	8.61%	532	13,095	4.06%
Missouri	7,832	293,131	2.67%	336	37,898	0.89%
Montana	77	63,623	0.12%	7	5,621	0.12%
Nebraska	863	102,811	0.84%	31	12,027	0.26%
Nevada	1,002	59,784	1.68%	39	9,933	0.39%
New Hampshire	229	79,771	0.29%	31	13,083	0.24%
New Jersey	14,556	406,792	3.58%	996	94,111	1.06%
New Mexico	587	82,253	0.71%	27	7,282	0.37%
New York	36,289	930,669	3.90%	1,886	208,303	0.91%
N. Carolina	19,487	329,373	5.92%	746	45,357	1.64%
N. Dakota	57	42,717	0.13%	1	4,128	0.02%
Ohio	15,983	521,123	3.07%	626	72,188	0.87%
Oklahoma	3,461	223,676	1.55%	94	19,592	0.48%
Oregon	848	185,151	0.46%	34	22,113	0.15%
Pennsylvania	11,728	595,653	1.97%	747	116,167	0.64%
Rhode Island	489	52,780	0.93%	18	10,048	0.18%
S. Carolina	12,815	149,190	8.59%	444	18,552	2.39%
S. Dakota	63	47,829	0.13%	5	5,135	0.10%
Tennessee	10,423	251,255	4.15%	386	33,913	1.14%
Texas	35,725	1,025,617	3.48%	1,084	115,560	0.94%
Utah	202	100,186	0.20%	9	9,894	0.09%
Vermont	98	45,243	0.22%	7	5,191	0.13%
Virginia	18,781	297,541	6.31%	811	41,261	1.97%
Washington	2,583	286,224	0.90%	176	36,872	0.48%
W. Virginia	727	78,026	0.93%	39	7,048	0.55%
Wisconsin	2,381	239,185	1.00%	191	32,068	0.60%
Wyoming	81	34,573	0.23%	4	3,435	0.12%

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-163, September 12, 1990.

ASPECTS OF THE PERCEPTION OF POVERTY IN EUROPE IN 1989

The material on this page and the three pages following has been excerpted from the 109-page March 1990 Eurobarometer report by the Commission of the European Communities, The Perception of Poverty in Europe: Poverty 3.

A large part of the Eurobarometer polled over the 1989 summer dealt with poverty-connected issues: How do Europeans perceive poverty? Do they meet paupers in their daily life? What are the most widely spread opinions on the existence of poverty? [1]

First of all, we would like to stress the fact that the data reported in this document were obtained in a survey and that this methodology has inherent limitations: this is in no way intended to inventory poverty in Europe. The paupers, the misfits are *de facto* excluded from the representative samples used in the polling method (see technical Appendix A).

[11,819 persons age 15 and older were polled.]

We did not mean to seek a definition for poverty or a poverty line either.

Our sole ambition is to give an account of the Europeans' opinions and representations on the paupers: does or doesn't the general public agree on who the paupers are in a European country in 1989, on what is necessary to lead a proper life? How do people feel about the changing numbers of paupers? Which explanations to poverty are acknowledged?...

The word "poverty" covers a wide range of variable-geometry realities depending on the country and the date. Dipping its roots in confirmable facts, it also has a subjective dimension. Based on this, we tried to grasp the Europeans' living conditions in terms of income but also of sociability, satisfaction, access to welfare so as to figure out what seems to be the minimum acceptable in the general public's opinion. We also reckoned more subjective items such as the claim of being rich or poor, or statements on the social path of one's own family.

In the second section of this report, opinions on poverty (how the developments in the number of paupers are perceived, acknowledged grounds to the phenomenon,...) are paralleled with the usual social and demographic factors (income level, education,...) but also with more specific data such as the presence of paupers in the daily environment or how one sees one's own position on the poverty scale.

Lastly, the range of possible actions is examined, regarding the struggle against poverty, personal involvement, measures taken by the public authorities, by the European institutions.

In order to outline the framework of our survey, and prior to conducting an in-depth analysis of opinions on poverty, let us check how it is positioned among major social issues:

Question: *Here is a list of problems. I would like you to tell me, for each one, if you personally consider it very important, of little importance, or not important at all?* *

. The protection of nature and the struggle against pollution	3.77
. The fight against unemployment	3.72
. The fight against poverty	3.59
. Problem of energy supplies	3.47
. Reduce the differences between the regions of our country by helping those regions less developed or in difficulties	3.28
. Help the poor countries of Africa, South America, Asia	3.06

The struggle against poverty is therefore of utmost importance to Europeans. It may rank third, after the environment and unemployment, but it should be noted that one of the widely acknowledged grounds to poverty is unemployment over an extended period of time.

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[1] This is the second opinion poll conducted on this issue within the framework of the Eurobarometer: the first survey was conducted in 1976. There are a few subjects of comparison as a result of three modified factors: a change in the terminology (the word "poverty" replaced that of "destitution" which was rather used in the questions asked in 1976), differences in the metric for answer collection (a 10-point scale replacing a 4-point scale...) and the EEC extension [from nine to 12 nations--Greece, Portugal, and Spain being the newest member nations of EEC]

* The results are shown below in decreasing order and as an average: extremely important = 4, not important at all = 1.

continued →

PERCEPTION OF POVERTY continued

STANDARD OF LIVING

A list of items including consumer goods, services, access to welfare was drawn up so as to reckon the various aspects of poverty. This list is used in this document within a dual prospect: on the one hand, identifying the goods or services which some Europeans do not have and, on the other hand, trying to define--if possible--the constituents of a minimum standard of living, acceptable in the general public's eyes.

Constituents of the standard of living

Once again, the limited representativity of the samples used in an opinion poll should be stressed. The figures indicated on this document as to the lacks felt by those surveyed probably underestimate reality: indeed, the less privileged parts of the population, the poorest people are, if not totally excluded, at least under-represented in our samples.

Question: *Not everyone has the same ideas about the necessities of life. Among the following things, which ones seem to you the absolutely necessary to live properly today, and which ones don't seem to you to be absolutely necessary? Among these items, are there some which you do not have or which you lack?*

	Absolutely necessary	Not absolutely necessary	Are lacking
. Having running water, electricity and one's indoor toilet	94	2	1
. To be able to benefit from social welfare when needed, such as unemployment, illness, handicap, old age	92	4	5
. Having sufficient accommodation so that everyone can have space to themselves	79	13	5
. Having a good education	81	12	11
. Having a car available	35	59	18
. Having sufficient leisure time and the means to enjoy it	56	34	11
. Having a healthy diet	80	11	3
. Having at least one good holiday a year	43	49	16
. Seeing your doctor regularly	59	31	2
. Having friendly neighbors	56	34	4
. Being able to go out with friends or family	61	29	4
. Having basic equipment such as refrigerator or television set	71	20	2
. No answer	0	16	53
. TOTAL	(1)	(1)	(1)

(1) The total exceeds 100 owing to multiple answers.

continued →

PERCEPTION OF POVERTY continued

The Europeans' level of satisfaction with the main components of their living environment was also collected. The results are expressed under the form of mean index.[2]

Question: *I am going to ask you to tell me about different aspects of your daily life. In each case could you tell me whether you think this aspect is very good, fairly good, fairly bad or very bad?*

. Your house or flat	3.47
. The neighborhood where you live	3.45
. Your income	2.91
. The work that you do	3.21
. Your standard of living	3.19
. The way you are able to use your leisure time	3.21
. The food you eat	3.51
. Your social entitlements should you fall ill	3.14
. Travel facilities there are for work or doing the shopping	3.24
. Your state of health	3.38
. The time you have available to do things that have to be done	3.22
. Your general level of education and knowledge	3.18
. The respect that others have for you	3.44
. The opportunities you have for meeting people	3.40
. Your neighbors, the people in the vicinity	3.40

---

[2] It is computed by assigning the following coefficients:
It's OK = 4; it could be better = 3; it is not OK = 2; it is not OK at all = 1.

Question: *Why, in your opinion are there people who live in need? Here are four opinions--which is the closest to yours?*

	E.E.C. 1989
. Because they have been unlucky	18 %
. Because of laziness and lack of willpower	17
. Because there is much injustice in our society	32
. It is an inevitable part of modern progress	17
. None of these	7
. ?	9
. TOTAL	100

In continuation of the answers above, more detailed grounds also related to the overall economic environment were proposed to the polling sample.

Question: *Among the following reasons which might explain why people are poor, which three of them, in your opinion, are the most common?*

	EEC 1989
1. They are victims of long-term unemployment	53
2. They fell into alcoholism or drug abuse	38
3. Sickness	30
4. Family breakups	27
5. They were brought up in deprived conditions	23
6. The social welfare cuts	20
7. This goes back to their own laziness	17
8. Loss of spirit of community in our society	14
9. They have too many children	13
10. They live in a poor area	12
11. The educational system not catering for them	10
12. The lack of concern among neighbors	5

The order in the answers varies greatly from one country to the other as shown in the following table:

continued ⟶

PERCEPTION OF POVERTY continued

Most frequent grounds for poverty by country, in decreasing order

BELGIUM

Unemployment	51
Alcoholism, drugs	35
Illness	30
Broken families	30
Poor environment	28
Ebbing welfare	19
Laziness	18
Loss of solidarity	15
Education system	9
Poor area	8
Too many children	7
Indifference	6

DENMARK

Unemployment	52
Illness	51
Alcoholism, drugs	44
Broken families	43
Ebbing welfare	20
Loss of solidarity	19
Laziness	15
Education system	11
Poor environment	6
Indifference	3
Too many children	3
Poor area	2

GERMANY

Alcoholism, drugs	58
Unemployment	43
Illness	42
Broken families	28
Poor environment	20
Ebbing welfare	19
Laziness	18
Loss of solidarity	11
Too many children	7
Education system	7
Poor area	7
Indifference	5

GREECE

Illness	33
Laziness	31
Unemployment	30
Broken families	26
Poor environment	24
Ebbing welfare	15
Alcoholism, drugs	15
Poor area	13
Too many children	9
Loss of solidarity	8
Education system	5
Indifference	4

SPAIN

Unemployment	54
Alcoholism, drugs	41
Poor environment	28
Too many children	18
Poor area	16
Illness	16
Broken families	15
Laziness	10
Loss of solidarity	10
Laziness	9
Ebbing welfare	9
Indifference	2

FRANCE

Unemployment	66
Illness	32
Alcoholism, drugs	31
Loss of solidarity	22
Poor environment	21
Ebbing welfare	17
Broken families	17
Education system	17
Laziness	16
Too many children	10
Indifference	10
Poor area	7

IRELAND

Unemployment	64
Ebbing welfare	40
Alcoholism, drugs	39
Broken families	33
Poor environment	25
Illness	25
Too many children	19
Laziness	16
Education system	13
Poor area	13
Loss of solidarity	6
Indifference	3

ITALY

Unemployment	52
Alcoholism, drugs	37
Illness	32
Broken families	29
Poor environment	26
Laziness	19
Too many children	19
Poor area	18
Loss of solidarity	16
Ebbing welfare	13
Education system	6
Indifference	5

LUXEMBOURG

Alcoholism, drugs	45
Unemployment	38
Poor environment	37
Broken families	33
Illness	29
Laziness	29
Education system	12
Loss of solidarity	12
Ebbing welfare	7
Too many children	6
Indifference	5
Poor area	5

NETHERLANDS

Unemployment	55
Alcoholism, drugs	50
Ebbing welfare	42
Broken families	41
Illness	24
Poor environment	16
Loss of solidarity	12
Laziness	11
Education system	7
Too many children	5
Poor area	4
Indifference	1

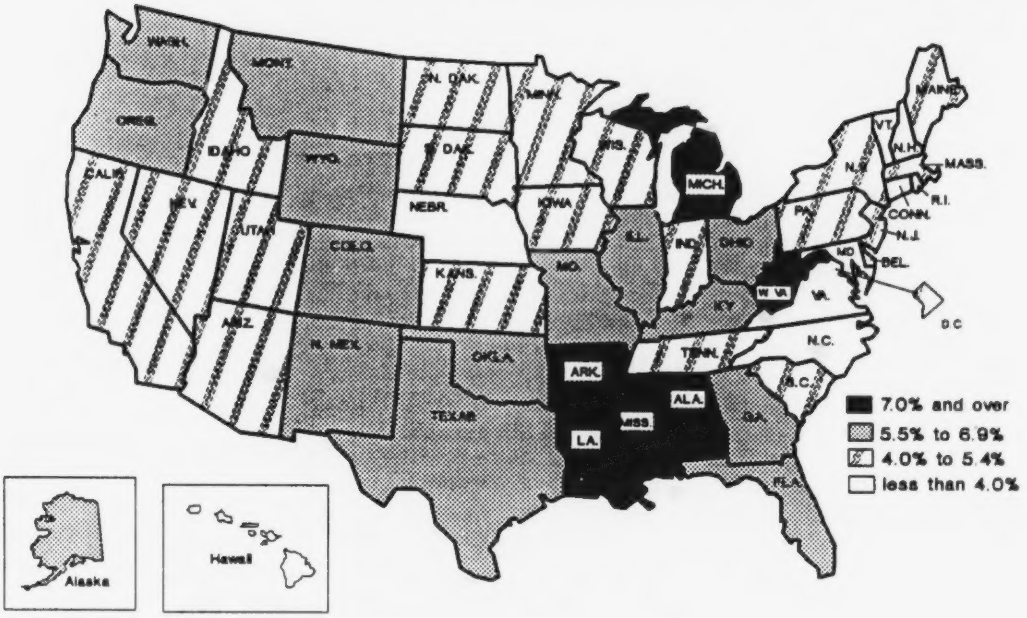
PORTUGAL

Unemployment	41
Illness	37
Ebbing welfare	30
Alcoholism, drugs	30
Too many children	25
Poor environment	21
Poor area	17
Broken families	16
Laziness	15
Loss of solidarity	12
Education system	5
Indifference	2

UNITED KINGDOM

Unemployment	60
Broken families	38
Ebbing welfare	33
Poor environment	23
Alcoholism, drugs	22
Laziness	21
Illness	18
Too many children	16
Poor area	15
Loss of solidarity	12
Education system	11
Indifference	3

U.S. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY STATE, 1989 ANNUAL AVERAGES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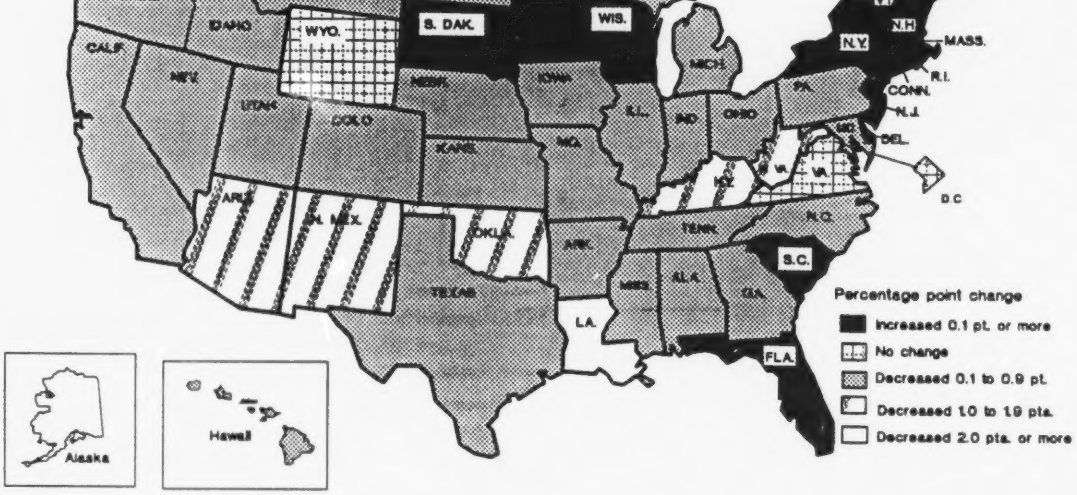
PA.
N.Y.
VT.
N.H.
MAINE
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
N.J.
DEL.
MD
D.C.
Alaska
Hawaii
■ 7.0% and over
▨ 5.5% to 6.9%
▨ 4.0% to 5.4%
☐ less than 4.0%

CHANGES IN STATE UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, 1988-90

(U.S. rate decreased 0.2 points)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VT.
N.H.
MAINE
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
N.J.
DEL.
MD.
D.C.
Alaska
Hawaii
Percentage point change
■ Increased 0.1 pt. or more
▦ No change
▨ Decreased 0.1 to 0.9 pt.
▨ Decreased 1.0 to 1.9 pts.
☐ Decreased 2.0 pts. or more

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bulletin 2361. May 1990. Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment, 1989. P. 34.

A NEW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX LAUNCHED EARLIER THIS YEAR BY UN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

THE FIRST-EVER Human Development Report, launched on 24 May by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), adds a new indicator—the Human Development Index—to the development lexicon. The report is expected to stir controversy: it names countries it feels have neglected human development and calls on international donors to require "benign conditions" for assistance, admonishes governments from curbing urbanization, and advocates higher priority to women's issues. The report also urges population growth reduction and suggests that successful technical assistance programmes are those that quickly phase themselves out.

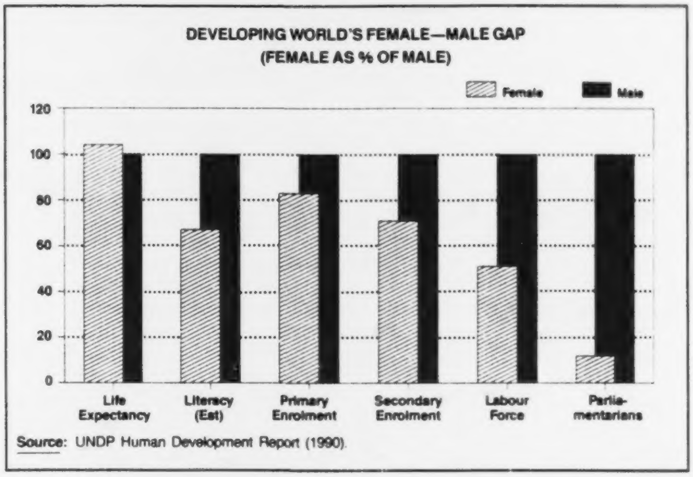
"This report is about people," write the authors of *Human Development Report (1990)*, "and about how development enlarges their choices. It is about more than GNP growth, more than income and wealth and more than producing commodities and accumulating capital."

The chosen standard for measuring human development is the Human Development Index (HDI), which combines life expectancy, adult literacy, and purchasing power.

The most fundamental lesson learned by the report's authors: that there is no automatic link between economic growth and human development. For example, on an inverted scale of 130 countries, Sri Lanka's Gross National Product (GNP) ranks only 38th. But the island nation's HDI ranking is 83, placing it above many countries with higher GNPs including Brazil, which has a GNP five times Sri Lanka's.

Population growth rates must be significantly reduced, the report states. Rapid growth, particularly in Africa and Asia, underscores the "urgent need to strengthen programmes of family planning, fertility reduction and maternal and child health care." Population growth and restricted access to international assistance and trade outlets will mean that "the compulsion to migrate in search of better economic opportunities will be overwhelming—a sobering thought for the 1990s."

Urban populations in the developing countries will almost double from 1.3 billion to 2.3 billion in the next 15 years, with the greatest absolute growth in Asia. By the year 2015 half the developing world's people will live in cities. But, the report warns, policies aimed at deterring urban migration can be disastrous. Whatever their faults, big cities generate a significant share of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and they are the hub of transportation, communications, and expert labour. Many of the solutions to urban problems lie in the informal sector. The report favours decentralizing urban programmes and administration in order to stimulate initiative by empowering people to make their own choices. ◆



DEVELOPING WORLD'S FEMALE—MALE GAP
(FEMALE AS % OF MALE)

Source: UNDP Human Development Report (1990).

Source: United Nations Population Fund's Population (UNFPA Newsletter), Vol. 16, No. 7. July 1990.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX continued

The New Human Development Index has Three Components: Life Expectancy, Literacy, and Purchasing Power.

	Low Human Development	Human Dev. Index	GNP per capita rank 1987
1	Niger	.116	20
2	Mali	.143	15
3	Burkina Faso	.150	13
4	Sierra Leone	.150	27
5	Chad	.157	4
6	Guinea	.162	31
7	Somalia	.200	23
8	Mauritania	.208	40
9	Afghanistan	.212	17
10	Benin	.224	28
11	Burundi	.235	18
12	Bhutan	.236	3
13	Mozambique	.239	10
14	Malawi	.250	7
15	Sudan	.255	32
16	Central African Rep.	.258	29
17	Nepal	.273	8
18	Senegal	.274	43
9	Ethiopia	.282	1
20	Zaire	.294	5
21	Rwanda	.304	26
22	Angola	.304	58
23	Bangladesh	.318	6
24	Nigeria	.322	36
25	Yemen Arab Rep.	.328	47
26	Liberia	.333	42
27	Togo	.337	24
28	Uganda	.354	21
29	Haiti	.356	34
30	Ghana	.360	37
31	Yemen, PDR	.369	39
32	Cote d'Ivoire	.393	52
33	Congo	.395	59
34	Namibia	.404	60
35	Tanzania, U. Rep. of	.413	12
36	Pakistan	.423	33
37	India	.439	25
38	Madagascar	.440	14
39	Papua New Guinea	.471	50
40	Kampuchea	.471	2
41	Cameroon	.474	64
42	Kenya	.481	30
43	Zambia	.481	19
4	Morocco	.489	48

	Medium Human Development	Human Dev. Index	GNP per capita rank 1987
45	Egypt	.501	49
46	Lao People's Dem. Rep.	.506	9
47	Gabon	.525	93
48	Oman	.535	104
49	Bolivia	.548	44
50	Myanmar	.561	11
51	Honduras	.563	53
52	Zimbabwe	.576	45
53	Lesotho	.580	35
54	Indonesia	.591	41
55	Guatemala	.592	63
56	Viet Nam	.608	16
57	Algeria	.609	91
58	Botswana	.646	69
59	El Salvador	.651	56
60	Tunisia	.657	70
61	Iran, Islamic Rep. of	.660	97
62	Syrian Arab Rep.	.691	79
63	Dominican Rep.	.699	51
64	Saudi Arabia	.702	107
65	Philippines	.714	46
66	China	.716	22
67	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	.719	103
68	South Africa	.731	82
69	Lebanon	.735	78
70	Mongolia	.737	57
71	Nicaragua	.743	54
72	Turkey	.751	71
73	Jordan	.752	76
74	Peru	.753	74
75	Ecuador	.758	68
76	Iraq	.759	96
77	United Arab Emirates	.782	127
78	Thailand	.783	55
79	Paraguay	.784	65
80	Brazil	.784	85
81	Mauritius	.788	75
82	Korea, Dem. Rep. of	.789	67
83	Sri Lanka	.789	38
84	Albania	.790	61

	High Human Development	Human Dev. Index	GNP per capita rank 1987
85	Malaysia	.800	80
86	Colombia	.801	72
87	Jamaica	.824	62
88	Kuwait	.839	122
89	Venezuela	.861	95
90	Romania	.863	84
91	Mexico	.876	81
92	Cuba	.877	66
93	Panama	.883	88
94	Trinidad and Tobago	.885	100
95	Portugal	.899	94
96	Singapore	.899	110
97	Korea, Rep. of	.903	92
98	Poland	.910	83
99	Argentina	.910	89
100	Yugoslavia	.913	90
101	Hungary	.915	87
102	Uruguay	.916	86
103	Costa Rica	.916	77
104	Bulgaria	.918	99
105	USSR	.920	101
106	Czechoslovakia	.931	102
107	Chile	.931	73
108	Hong Kong	.936	111
109	Greece	.949	98
110	German Dem. Rep.	.953	115
111	Israel	.957	108
112	USA	.961	129
113	Austria	.961	118
114	Ireland	.961	106
115	Spain	.965	105
116	Belgium	.966	116
117	Italy	.966	112
118	New Zealand	.966	109
119	Germany, Fed. Rep. of	.967	120
120	Finland	.967	121
121	United Kingdom	.970	113
122	Denmark	.971	123
123	France	.974	119
124	Australia	.978	114
125	Norway	.983	128
126	Canada	.983	124
127	Netherlands	.984	117
128	Switzerland	.986	130
129	Sweden	.987	125
130	Japan	.996	126

Source: United Nations Development Programme's World Development, May 1990. Pp. 5-12.

PROFILES

If our world were a village of 1,000 people, what would its ethnic and religious composition be? IRED Forum, a publication of the Geneva-based Innovations et Reseaux pour le Developpement (Development Innovations and Networks), cites the approximate populations as follows:

In the village would be:

564	Asians
210	Europeans
86	Africans
80	South Americans
60	North Americans

There would be:

300	Christians (183 Catholics, 84 Protestants, 33 Orthodox)
175	Moslems
55	Buddhists
47	Animists
210	without any religion or Atheist (or other)

Of these people:

60	persons would have half the income
500	would be hungry
600	would live in shantytowns
700	would be illiterate

Printed in World Development Forum, which cited source as Frères Sans Frontières.

Cross-Channel Traffic is Increasing

As part of the ongoing study of the cross-Channel market, Eurotunnel receives, at least annually, information from its independent traffic and revenue consultants about the total cross-Channel market. The first definitive study in 1987 forecast that 64.3 million passengers would cross the Channel in 1993. Those 1993 forecasts were virtually achieved in 1989, four years earlier than forecast, when it is estimated that 64.2 million passengers actually crossed the Channel last year. (Estimated cross-Channel traffic for 1976 was approximately 30 million passengers.)

Poll: West Germans Want More "Cultivated Leisure"

West Germans want to watch less television, take better advantage of cultural offerings and spend less free time with family, friends or acquaintances in the 1990s, according to the results of a recent study by the BAT Leisure-Time Research Institute in Hamburg. The researchers, who polled 2,000 people 14 years of age and older on their present recreational behavior and their wishes for the future, found that West Germans wanted the coming decade to be a time of "cultivated leisure" consisting of a combination of more peace and quiet for the individual and less "free-time activism" with others.

Some 87 percent of the respondents said watching television was currently their most frequent leisure-time activity. A total of 62 percent responded that most of their spare time was spent with their family, while 59 percent said this time was most often spent with friends. Private obligations toward acquaintances took up the most free time for 47 percent of the respondents.

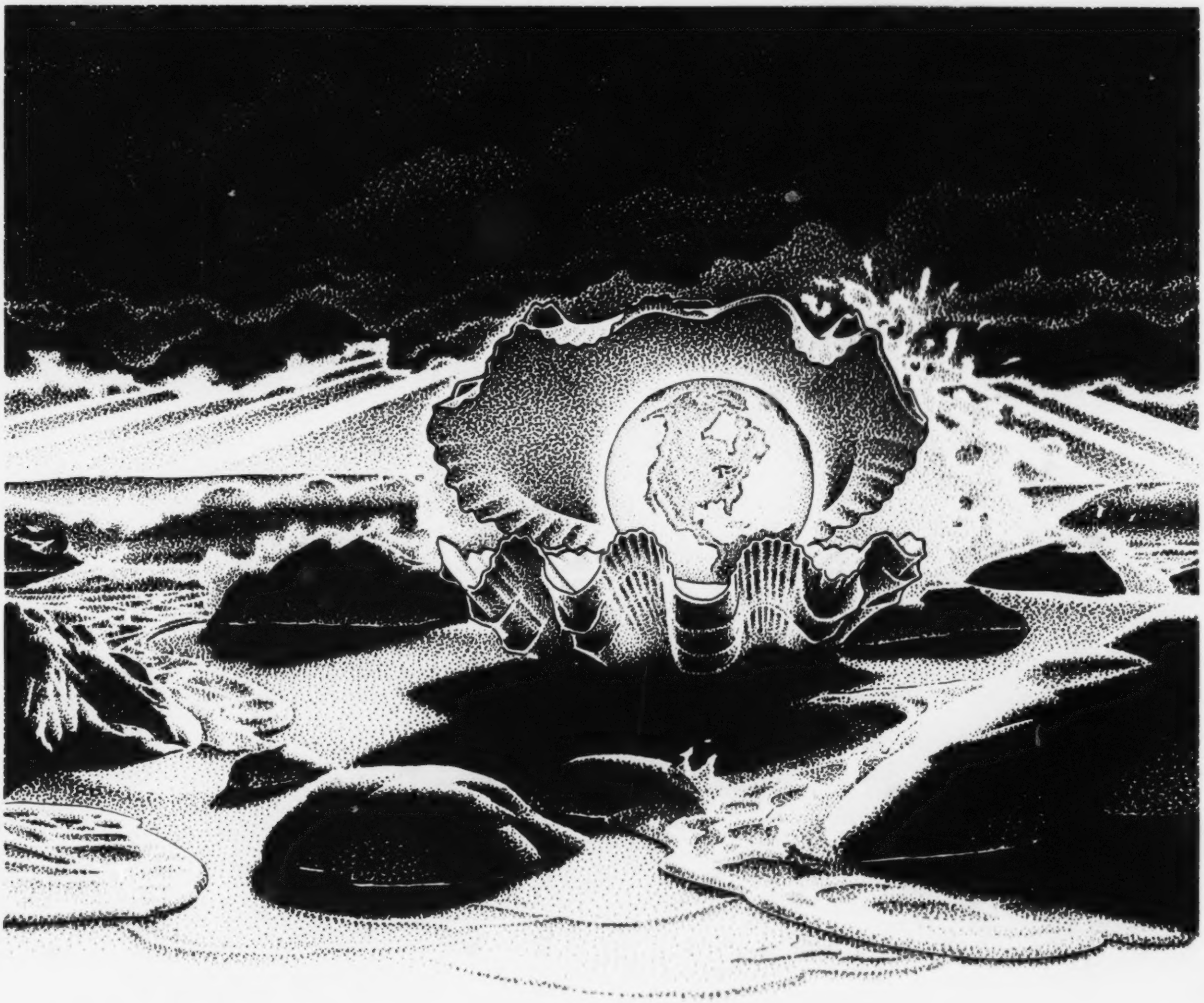
The pollsters reported that West Germans wanted to reduce their TV viewing in the 1990s and that they no longer wanted to give leisure-time contacts with family and friends the same priority as before. While approximately half of those polled said family, friends and acquaintances had dominated their free time thus far, only a third said they wanted this to continue in the future. The study's authors asserted that West Germans were looking for opportunities to withdraw and for less stress in inter-personal relations. Researchers interpreted as an expression of personal dissatisfaction the desire indicated by respondents to take part in more cultural activities and to attend more continuing education courses.

The Week in Germany.
May 4, 1990. P.7.

Animals: Our Fellow Wayfarers

The West Germany Civil Code will in future no longer refer to animals as "objects" but rather as "fellow creatures" (Mitgeschöpfe) of humans. The Bundestag passed legislation June 20 effecting such a change and also stipulating that owners of animals bear a "special responsibility" for the welfare of their pets.

The Week in Germany.
June 22, 1990. P. 7.



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1991

National Science Foundation (PSA)
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A CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN U.S. HISTORY

The chronology below has been excerpted from a combined U.S. and U.S. Bureau of the Census History Outline which was printed in the Bureau's Bicentennial Issue of Census and You, August 1990.

1787	U.S. Constitution adopted, calls for census.
1790	U.S. population 3.9 million.
1793	Cotton gin invented, revives Southern slavery.
1800	U.S. capital moved from Philadelphia to Washington, DC.
1803	Louisiana Purchase doubles U.S. area.
1812-15	War with Great Britain
1823	Erie Canal opened, cuts travel time to the West.
1830	First railroads
1837	Steel plow invented, opens Great Plains to agriculture.
1846-48	Mexican War adds Southwest to Nation.
1849	California Gold Rush; first major wave of foreign immigration
1850	Slavery issue becomes increasingly tense.
1860	New York City passes 1-million population mark.
1861-65	Civil War
1862	Homestead Act: free family farms for settlers.
1865	13th Amendment abolishes slavery; "Reconstruction" begins.
1867	U.S. buys Alaska from Russia.
1869	Transcontinental railroad completed; women vote for the first time (Wyoming).
1878	First commercial telephone exchange
1880	Second major wave of foreign immigration; U.S. population reaches 50 million.
1890	Wounded Knee, last major conflict between American Indians and U.S. troops.
1898	Spanish-American War adds Puerto Rico and Guam.
1903	Wright Brothers' first successful flight
1906	San Francisco earthquake
1914-18	World War I
1915	U.S. population hits 100 million.
1917	U.S. enters World War I, buys U.S. Virgin Islands from Denmark.
1920	First regularly licensed radio broadcast; U.S. population more urban than rural.
1921	Congress sets immigration quotas.
1924	All American Indians made U.S. citizens.
1927	Lindbergh flies the Atlantic "solo."
1929	Stock market crashes; Great Depression begins.
1935	Social security begins.
1939-45	World War II
1940	First peacetime military draft
1941	Pearl Harbor attacked; U.S. enters World War II.
1950-53	U.S. troops sent to Korea; first transcontinental television. Women outnumber men in U.S. population.
1954	Racial segregation in public schools declared unconstitutional.
1957	Civil Rights Act signed.
1958	First U.S. earth satellite in orbit
1960	Voting Rights Act signed.
1962	Supreme Court "one man, one vote" decision, first of series
1962-73	U.S. troops in Vietnam
1963	Equal Rights demonstrations; Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "I have a dream" speech; President Kennedy killed.
1967-68	Race riots; Martin Luther King, Jr. and Sen. Robert F. Kennedy assassinated; U.S. population passes 200 million.
1969	U.S. astronauts first on Moon
1970	Over half U.S. adult population (25 and over) completed high school. Third major wave of foreign immigration
1971	Voting age lowered to 18. General Revenue Sharing Act begins disbursements to State and local governments.
1972-75	Watergate Scandal
1975	Public Law 94-171 sets up voluntary program for States to receive census data for reapportionment and redistricting.
1976	U.S. balance-of-trade deficit begins.
1979	Iran hostage crisis
1980	Total population in South and West exceeds that in North and Midwest.
1983	National Commission on Excellence in Education labels U.S. elementary and secondary education "mediocre"; AIDS virus identified.
1985	Congress passes Gramm-Rudman-Hollings "balanced budget" bill.
1986-87	Iran "contra" affair
1988	Agricultural droughts and forest fires
1989	Hurricane and earthquake; "Cold War" diminishes.
1990	U.S. population surpasses 250 million.

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TECHNOLOGY SAID TO BE FORCING REVISIONS OF ETHICAL CONCEPTS

The following article By Kathleen O'Toole is reprinted from The Stanford University Campus Report, August 15, 1990. P. 6.

The controversy surrounding two recent government decisions — permitting human gene therapy and limiting our "right to die with dignity" — are examples of how technology is driving us to revise our ethical concepts, says Prof. Robert E. McGinn, an ethicist in Stanford's Values, Technology, Science and Society Program.

"We need a new model of how harm is done" to others, McGinn told several hundred alumni at Kresge Auditorium on Aug. 10. His talk was part of the Stanford Alumni Association's summer college, "Perspectives on a Changing World." McGinn is also the author of a textbook on technology, science and ethics that is due to be published later this year.

Microcomputer technology may be implicated in a reduction in the quantity and quality of leisure time

In his talk, McGinn outlined a number of technologies that are fertile sources for ethical conflict:

- Skyscraper technology that permits New York builders to extend shadows over New Jersey, and San Francisco builders to drop the average daytime temperature in nearby playgrounds.
- Aviation and military technology that increases noise in both busy urban environments and pristine national parks while providing economic benefits or pleasure to those engaged in the activity.
- Human gene therapy technology, which was approved by an advisory committee of the National Institutes of Health on July 31 for experimental use on children with a devastating immune deficiency disorder and on adults with otherwise fatal skin cancer. The larger ethical questions in this area relate to potential future use of gene splicing technology for physical enhancement and for preselection by parents of their heirs' traits, McGinn said.
- Life sustainment equipment that permits approximately 10,000 Americans to "live" in a comatose state. (In a June 25 decision, the U.S. Supreme Court asserted a "negative" right to die rather than a "positive" one, McGinn said, which will likely lead to more and more people living in a vegetative state.)
- Microcomputer technology, initially regarded by many as a way for humans to escape unsafe and exploitive work but which, McGinn says, may now be implicated in a variety of health problems and in a reduction in the quantity and quality of leisure time.

With some of these technologies, Americans typically fail to see any ethical issues, McGinn said. Instead, they cast the conflict as matters of personal preference: "You like vanilla, and I like chocolate.

"As long as we portray technology-based controversies such as these as no more than intangible value conflicts, we're going to have a tough time developing a consensus . . . in our multicultural, heterogeneous, materialistic society." Ethics, he explained, is an enterprise that evolved to "compensate for the all-too-limited human capacity for empathizing with the plight of others affected by human action."

Americans generally can agree that it is unethical to use a gun, knife or bomb against another without provocation. But agreement is harder to reach on the ethical uses of newer technologies because they tend to cause harm in ways that are "not that immediate, direct or short term." As a result, these technologies "stretch traditional ethical notions and principles on an intellectual rack," he said.

One way to move forward is for researchers to attempt to produce "strong empirical evidence that all cannot deny about a controversial technology, technology use or technology practice" that is harming someone who might be protected through a change in human ethics and action.

Skyscrapers and noisy machines aren't innocents

Noisy machines and sunlight-grabbing skyscrapers harm human beings indirectly by degrading their environment, McGinn said.

Noisy machines and sunlight-grabbing skyscrapers harm human beings indirectly by degrading their environment

He cited a number of studies that show that noise levels that are not unusual in the United States have adverse effects on the physical, psychological, cognitive and emotional well being of people exposed. "In fact, as a whole, the United States is increasingly a hearing impaired society." In one study of the Mabaan, a remote Sudanese people, for instance, the hearing of 80-year-old tribesmen tested better than that of the average 30-year-old American, he said.

"Some people argue that excessive noise is the price that must be paid for living in an advanced industrial society. I strongly deny that and point to the societies of Sweden and Norway and their large, quiet capital cities. . . . Noise may be technologically enabled but it is a cultural product, not technologically determined," he said in a paper prepared for his talk.

Research on Los Angeles schoolchildren has demonstrated that placing the flight patterns of urban airports over schools is "an ethical outrage" and "every bit as much a harm as going up and assaulting someone with a gun or knife.

"This is a technology-induced psychological version of the rich get richer and the poor get poorer."

Similarly, he said, studies have established that a reduction in sunlight, which high-rise buildings force on their surroundings, both increases the occurrence of depression and the risk of osteoporosis. "And there is increasing evidence that high-rise life extracts a deep toll on childhood psychological development," he said.

In a study of New York children raised in high rises, Alice Coleman of City University of New York found that "most were not allowed to play by themselves until they were 10 years old." This was primarily because their parents could not supervise the children's passage in and out at a distance.

High-rise bred children, having been "more cooped up indoors" and having missed "a crucial stage in the development of self-confidence . . . seem to be more vulnerable to peer pressure and gang behavior, " Coleman reported.

"Such claims and the continued proliferation of high-rise buildings make the influence of high-rise life on children a topic warranting further research," McGinn said.

continued →

TECHNOLOGY SAID TO BE ....continued

Human gene therapy, enhancement

The recently approved human gene therapy experiments raise a host of ethical issues about the future of this technology, McGinn said. The approved experiments are for treating diseases for which no other successful treatment is available, but it is possible that individuals could be pressured into such treatments in the future if they become cheaper than other treatments.

> **The recently approved human gene therapy experiments raise a host of ethical issues about the future of this technology**

And the same techniques likely could be used in the future for enhancement of an individual's physical or cognitive traits as well, he said. "The question becomes this: Can *a clear line* be drawn between using genetic intervention to cure a disease and using it to enhance or improve a trait that is not a disease?"

And finally, although the genes being spliced now are not passed onto future generations, such intervention is a future possibility, he said. The latter would involve "a form of experimentation on unconsenting future generations."

We are already "tip-toeing up" to enhancement treatments with an experiment underway to see if a human growth hormone which was formally only harvestable in small quantities and used to treat certain kinds of dwarfism in children, can be used to increase the growth rate and adult height of children who are not physiologically deficient in the hormone, McGinn said.

"So, here, in a society that clearly values height and where, other things being equal, taller people generally fare better than shorter ones, being significantly shorter than average is regarded as justification for genetic-related medical intervention.

"In an era of competition, of liposuction, hair transplants and other cosmetic surgery, where people pay big bucks to come closer to or exceed desired social norms, there is likely to be a market" for enhancement treatments when they become feasible, he predicted.

Such possibilities also threaten to "exacerbate problems of inequality via differential access" to the treatments, he said.

Some may find comfort in the fact that the American public has looked askance at athletes who use steroids, but McGinn said he suspects the primary objection is based on the drug's link to other illicit drug use.

"Genetic enhancement may be less controversial than chemical enhancement."

Supreme Court narrows right to die

McGinn was sharply critical of the U.S. Supreme Court's June 25 decision to uphold a Missouri court's decision forbidding the parents of Nancy Beth Cruzan to remove medical support equipment. The equipment had been used to keep the 32-year-old woman alive in a comatose state since she was injured in a 1983 automobile accident.

The court narrowly interpreted what constituted consent from the patient to remove life support equipment, he said, so that 85 percent of Americans who do not fill out living wills face the possibility of prolonged treatment in a vegetative state.

Furthermore, he said, the court's language suggests that people who want to preserve their "right to die with dignity" must be specific about what treatments they wish to reject through a doctor or guardian — at least in states that also have strict language on what constitutes consent.

The majority opinion also tends to "assume that 'taking a life,' 'murder,' and 'killing' are semantic equivalents," he said. "I submit that a better way of describing the consequences of withdrawal (of food and hydration equipment) is to say that 'such a removal would have terminated Nancy's corporal existence.' The accident 'took her life as a person,' and that's what should be entered on the death certificate as the cause of death."

The electronic workplace

In his final example of ethical conflicts in technology, McGinn raised the possibility that computerized workplaces aren't a technological advancement from the workers' or their families' point of view.

U.S. workers have lost leisure time since the advent of the electronic workplace. While some have attributed this trend to the middle-age bulge of the baby-boom population, McGinn quoted Department of Labor statistics indicating that the additional work is disproportionately concentrated in fields with heavy use of such new office equipment as the personal computer, modem, multifunctional telephone, beepers and fax machine.

"In 1981, of every 1,000 Americans with full-time non-agricultural jobs, 192 worked 49 or more hours per week. By 1989, 235 of every 1,000 did. The occupational categories most heavily populated with such workers are 'executive, administrative and managerial' (33.1 percent), 'professional specialty' (29.4 percent) and 'sales' (33.9 percent). Workers in the first two categories, comprising only 28.7 percent of the full-time non-agricultural workforce, accounted for 40.5 percent of those working 49 or more hours per week." Use of electronic equipment at home may partially explain the longer work week, he said.

He also cited a number of studies that indicate that work on computers and computer-paced work have led to an increase in certain types of health problems, including carpal tunnel syndrome, job stress and difficulties refocusing vision on distant objects.

"The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 officially recognized that workers have a moral and legal right to a safe, healthful workplace," he noted, but so far, the federal agency charged with drafting OSHA regulations has said it could "take years" to develop any regulations for computerized workplaces.

"If someone could come along with a magic wand and wave it and have the same aggregate deleterious effects on the family that the diffusion of (electronic office technologies) is having, I suspect but few would hesitate to judge his action ethically blameworthy," McGinn said. "The fact that no single party or policy is responsible should not deter us from making ethical judgments about the subtle harm to the family that may be the result. We need careful research here." ◆

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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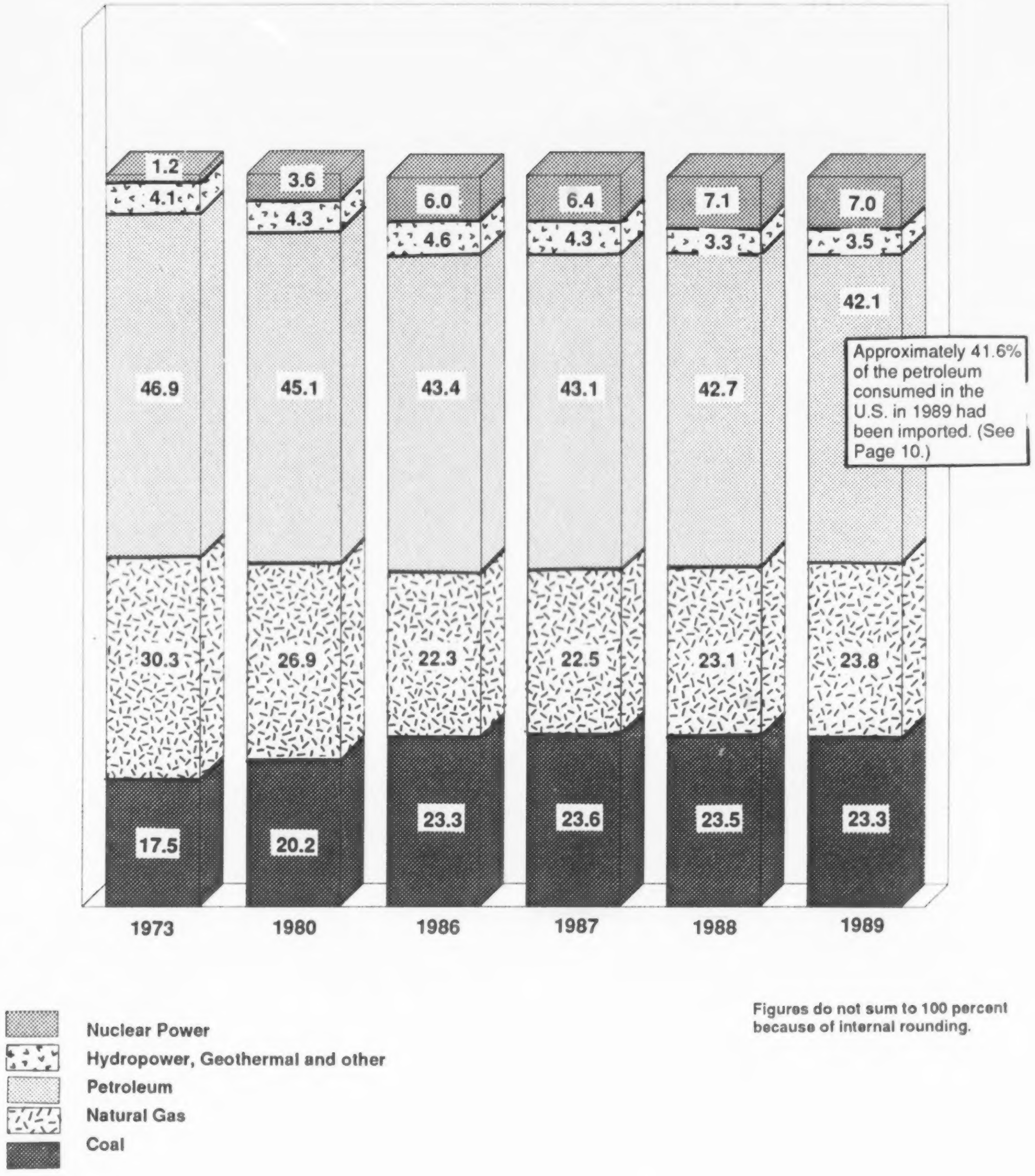
U.S. CONSUMPTION OF PRIMARY ENERGY BY SOURCE

-- Percent --



Approximately 41.6% of the petroleum consumed in the U.S. in 1989 had been imported. (See Page 10.)

Figures do not sum to 100 percent because of internal rounding.

World Eagle chart from data in U.S. Department of Energy's Monthly Energy Review, May 1985, June 1986, May 1987, May 1988, June 1990.

U.S. CONSUMPTION OF ENERGY, BY SOURCE, 1949-1989

Year	Coal	Natural Gas	Petroleum [1]	Hydroelectric Power [2]	Nuclear Electric Power [3]	Geothermal [3]	Other [4]	Total	Percent Change [5]
1949	11.98	5.15	11.88	1.45	0	0	(6)	30.46	—
1950	12.35	5.97	13.32	1.44	0	0	0.01	33.08	8.6
1951	12.55	7.05	14.43	1.45	0	0	- 0.02	35.47	7.2
1952	11.31	7.55	14.96	1.50	0	0	- 0.01	35.30	- 0.5
1953	11.37	7.91	15.56	1.44	0	0	(6)	36.27	2.7
1954	9.71	8.33	15.84	1.39	0	0	(6)	35.27	- 2.8
1955	11.17	9.00	17.25	1.41	0	0	- 0.01	38.82	10.1
1956	11.35	9.61	17.94	1.49	0	0	- 0.01	40.38	4.0
1957	10.82	10.19	17.93	1.56	0	0	- 0.02	40.48	0.3
1958	9.53	10.66	18.53	1.63	(6)	0	(6)	40.35	- 0.3
1959	9.52	11.72	19.32	1.59	(6)	0	- 0.01	42.14	4.4
1960	9.84	12.39	19.92	1.66	0.01	(6)	(6)	43.80	3.9
1961	9.62	12.93	20.22	1.68	0.02	(6)	- 0.01	44.46	1.5
1962	9.91	13.73	21.05	1.82	0.03	(6)	(6)	46.53	4.7
1963	10.41	14.40	21.70	1.77	0.04	(6)	- 0.01	48.32	3.9
1964	10.96	15.29	22.30	1.91	0.04	(6)	- 0.01	50.50	4.5
1965	11.58	15.77	23.25	2.06	0.04	(6)	- 0.02	52.68	4.3
1966	12.14	17.00	24.40	2.07	0.06	(6)	- 0.02	55.66	5.6
1967	11.91	17.94	25.28	2.34	0.09	0.01	- 0.01	57.57	3.4
1968	12.33	19.21	26.98	2.34	0.14	0.01	- 0.01	61.00	6.0
1969	12.38	20.68	28.34	2.66	0.15	0.01	- 0.03	64.19	5.2
1970	12.26	21.79	29.52	2.65	0.24	0.01	- 0.05	66.43	3.5
1971	11.60	22.47	30.56	2.86	0.41	0.01	- 0.03	67.89	2.2
1972	12.08	22.70	32.95	2.94	0.58	0.03	- 0.02	71.26	5.0
1973	12.97	22.51	34.84	3.01	0.91	0.04	(6)	74.28	4.2
1974	12.66	21.73	33.45	3.31	1.27	0.05	0.06	72.54	- 2.3
1975	12.66	19.95	32.73	3.22	1.90	0.07	0.02	70.55	- 2.8
1976	13.58	20.35	35.17	3.07	2.11	0.08	(6)	74.36	5.4
1977	13.92	19.93	37.12	2.51	2.70	0.08	0.02	76.29	2.6
1978	13.77	20.00	37.97	3.14	3.02	0.06	0.13	78.09	2.4
1979	15.04	20.67	37.12	3.14	2.78	0.08	0.07	78.90	1.0
1980	15.42	20.39	34.20	3.12	2.74	0.11	- 0.03	75.96	- 3.7
1981	15.91	19.93	31.93	3.11	3.01	0.12	- 0.01	73.99	- 2.6
1982	15.32	18.51	30.23	3.57	3.13	0.10	- 0.02	70.85	- 4.2
1983	15.89	17.36	30.05	3.90	3.20	0.13	- 0.01	70.52	- 0.5
1984	17.07	18.51	31.05	3.76	3.55	0.16	(6)	74.10	5.1
1985	17.48	17.83	30.92	3.36	4.15	0.20	(6)	73.95	- 0.2
1986	17.26	16.71	32.20	3.39	4.47	0.22	(6)	74.24	0.4
1987	18.01	17.74	32.87	3.07	4.91	0.23	0.02	76.84	3.5
1988	18.85	18.55	34.23	2.64	5.66	0.22	0.06	80.20	4.4
1989[7]	18.92	19.50	34.02	2.85	5.69	0.20	0.05	81.23	1.3

---

[1] Petroleum products supplied including natural gas plant liquids and crude oil burned as fuel.

[2] Electric utility and industrial generation of hydroelectric power and net electricity imports.

[3] Generated by electric utilities.

[4] Includes net imports of coal coke and electricity produced from wood, waste, wind, photovoltaic, and solar thermal sources connected to electric utility distribution systems. Converted to Btu by applying national average heat rates for fossil fuel steam electric plants. Data do not include the consumption of wood energy (other than that consumed by the electric utility industry) which amounted to an estimated 2.4 quadrillion Btu in 1987 (see Table 99). This table also does not include small quantities of energy forms for which consistent historical data are not available, such as geothermal, waste, wind, photovoltaic, or solar thermal energy sources except that consumed by electric utilities.

[5] Percent change from previous year calculated from data prior to rounding.

[6] Less than 0.005 quadrillion Btu.

[7] Preliminary.

Note: Sum of components may not equal total due to independent rounding.

Sources: Tables 50, 71, 79, 85, 87, and 89, EIA estimates for industrial hydroelectric power, and conversion factors in Appendix A.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Review 1989, p. 11. (Released for printing May 24, 1990.)

HOW THE STATES COMPARE IN PER CAPITA ENERGY CONSUMPTION

Highlights of a study released October 4, 1990 by Public Citizen, the environmental and consumer advocacy group founded by Ralph Nader in 1971, as reprorted in The Boston Globe, October 5, 1990. Pages 85-86.

"Notwithstanding the colder climate and longer heating season, the five states with the lowest per capita energy consumption are all located in the intemperate Northeast region."

NY, RI, NH, MA, and VT together have 10.7 percent of the US population but use just 6.9 percent of the nation's energy.

In contrast, three of the top four oil-producing states--Texas, Alaska, and Louisiana--consume more energy per person than every other state but sparsely populated Wyoming.

Texas accounts for nearly 12 percent of the total US energy use. And with 5 percent fewer residents, overall uses 2 1/2 times as much energy as New York.

In a separate ranking, the study ranked the states on per capita energy consumption, per capita petroleum consumption, and the percentage of energy derived from renewable energy sources. Based on these three factors, the study ranked TX, WY, AK, KS, and LA as the nation's biggest energy wasters, and NY, AZ, VT, CA, and CO the most responsible energy users.

If every state used energy at the rate used by the five most wasteful states, US energy use would be 35 percent greater than it is today. If all states followed the example of the five most efficient states, national energy consumption would fall 35 percent.

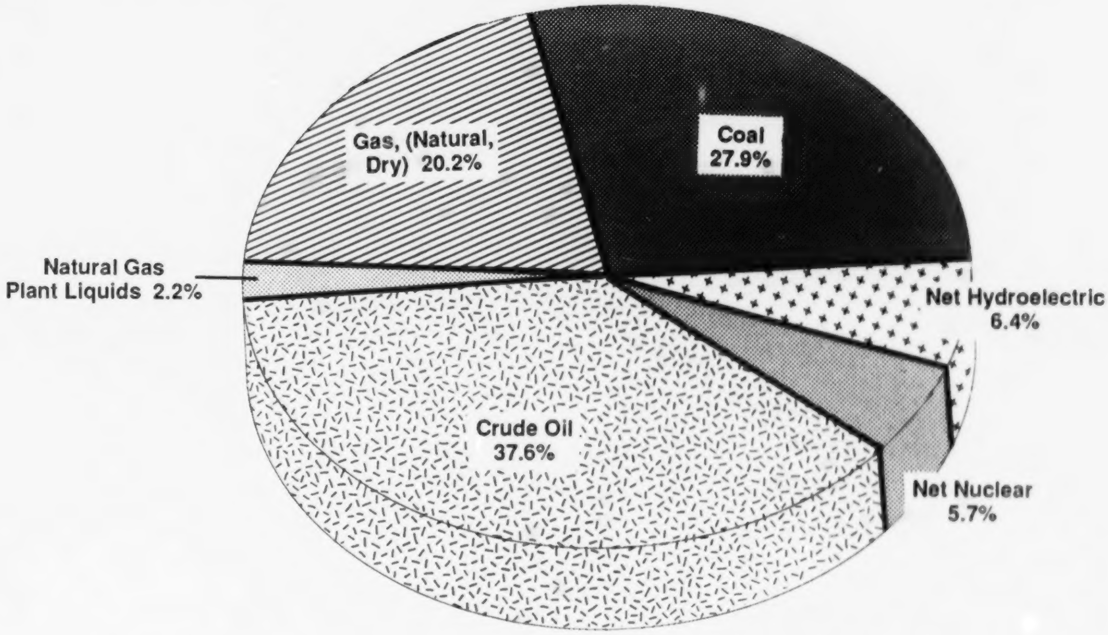
Public Citizen recommended that states use tools such as research grants, public education, utilities regulation, building codes and tax incentives to favor energy conservation, renewable energy technology, mass transit, alternative transportation and more efficient automobile use. ◆

Energy Efficiency: How The States Compare

Per capita energy consumption in millions of BTUs (British Thermal Units, a standard measure of energy).

Alaska	987.5	Delaware	341.8	New Jersey	295.5
Wyoming	794.5	Nebraska	332.5	Missouri	292.9
Louisiana	787.3	Iowa	331.6	District of Columbia	287.4
Texas	564.0	Arkansas	328.5	Wisconsin	286.0
North Dakota	471.5	South Carolina	325.5	South Dakota	284.1
Indiana	443.0	**National Average**	**323.1**	Maryland	264.3
Kansas	420.5	Nevada	319.8	Colorado	271.9
West Virginia	418.8	Georgia	316.7	Arizona	252.6
Montana	414.4	Utah	312.6	California	239.8
Oklahoma	397.0	Oregon	311.9	Hawaii	239.1
Alabama	392.0	Illinois	306.8	Connecticut	233.7
Washington	379.6	Maine	304.6	Florida	231.1
Kentucky	375.9	Minnesota	302.1	Vermont	227.9
Mississippi	357.9	Virginia	301.8	Massachusetts	227.7
Idaho	350.0	Pennsylvania	299.1	New Hampshire	219.3
Ohio	347.0	Michigan	296.9	Rhode Island	216.8
Tennessee	347.0	North Carolina	296.2	New York	199.7
New Mexico	342.9				

COMPONENTS OF WORLD PRIMARY ENERGY PRODUCTION, 1988

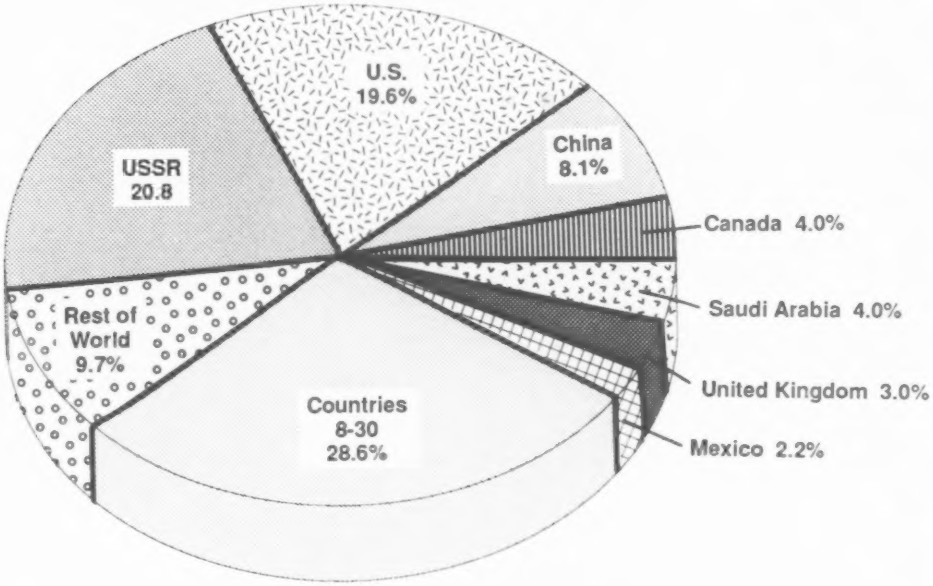


World Total 1988: 333.08 Quads (10^{15}) Btu

World Eagle chart based on data in U.S. Department of Energy's International Energy Annual 1988. Released for printing November 7, 1989. Pp. 4 & 5.

THE WORLD'S LARGEST PRODUCERS OF PRIMARY ENERGY

-- U.S. Share in 1988 Was 19.6% --



Percentage Shares of World Total for 1988:
33.08 Quatrillion (10^{15}) Btu

Countries Ranked 8-30

8.	Poland	1.9%	20.	Algeria	1.2%
9.	India	1.8%	21.	Kuwait	1.1%
10.	Australia	1.7%	22.	Brazil	1.0%
11.	W. Germany	1.7%	23.	Nigeria	1.0%
12.	Iran	1.7%	24.	Japan	0.9%
13.	Venezuela	1.7%	25.	E. Germany	0.9%
14.	Iraq	1.7%	26.	Romania	0.8%
15.	Norway	1.5%	27.	Netherlands	0.8%
16.	Indonesia	1.3%	28.	Egypt	0.7%
17.	South Africa	1.3%	29.	Libya	0.7%
18.	UAE	1.3%	30.	Czechoslovakia	0.7%
19.	France	1.2%			

World Eagle chart based on data in U.S. Department of Energy's International Energy Annual 1988. Released for printing November 7, 1989. Pp. 4 & 5.

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WORLD CRUDE OIL FLOW, 1987

(Thousand Barrels per Day)

Exporting Country or Region	Importing Country or Region										
	North America		Central and South America		Western Europe	Eastern Europe and U.S.S.R.	Middle East	Africa	Far East and Oceania		Total[1]
	United States	Canada	Caribbean Islands	Other					Japan	Other	
NORTH AMERICA											
Canada	608	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	2	2	**613**
Mexico	602	17	49	53	408	—	39	—	166	11	**1,345**
United States	—	17	131	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	**151**
CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA											
Ecuador	23	—	64	14	—	—	—	—	—	22	**123**
Peru	1	—	2	(*)	—	—	—	—	—	—	**3**
Trinidad and Tobago	75	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	**78**
Venezuela	488	35	224	93	164	—	—	18	5	—	**1,027**
Other	119	11	47	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	**182**
WESTERN EUROPE											
Norway	70	14	—	—	773	—	14	—	—	—	**871**
United Kingdom	304	204	4	—	1,124	—	—	1	—	—	**1,637**
Other	1	(*)	—	—	68	12	—	8	—	—	**89**
EASTERN EUROPE AND U.S.S.R.	—	—	78	18	976	1,459	17	40	1	110	**2,699**
MIDDLE EAST											
Iran	98	23	145	51	756	127	40	19	230	231	**1,720**
Iraq	82	10	—	248	880	197	61	48	105	74	**1,705**
Saudi Arabia	642	15	1	130	788	50	150	14	611	524	**2,925**
United Arab Emirates	56	5	27	13	203	—	8	119	579	310	**1,320**
Other	107	6	—	48	264	90	139	173	577	726	**2,130**
AFRICA											
North[2]	169	2	2	22	1,396	92	49	29	14	81	**1,856**
West[3]	609	40	37	54	686	—	20	47	—	4	**1,497**
Other	219	1	44	16	136	—	—	40	2	13	**471**
FAR EAST AND OCEANIA	401	—	2	59	20	17	—	32	798	705	**2,034**
WORLD TOTAL	**4,674**	**400**	**857**	**819**	**8,651**	**2,044**	**537**	**588**	**3,090**	**2,816**	**24,476**

---

[1] The data in this column do not equal reported exports because of changes in stocks at sea, exchanges, transshipments, and other statistical discrepancies.

[2] Includes Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia.

[3] Includes Benin, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria and Togo.

— Indicates data not applicable.

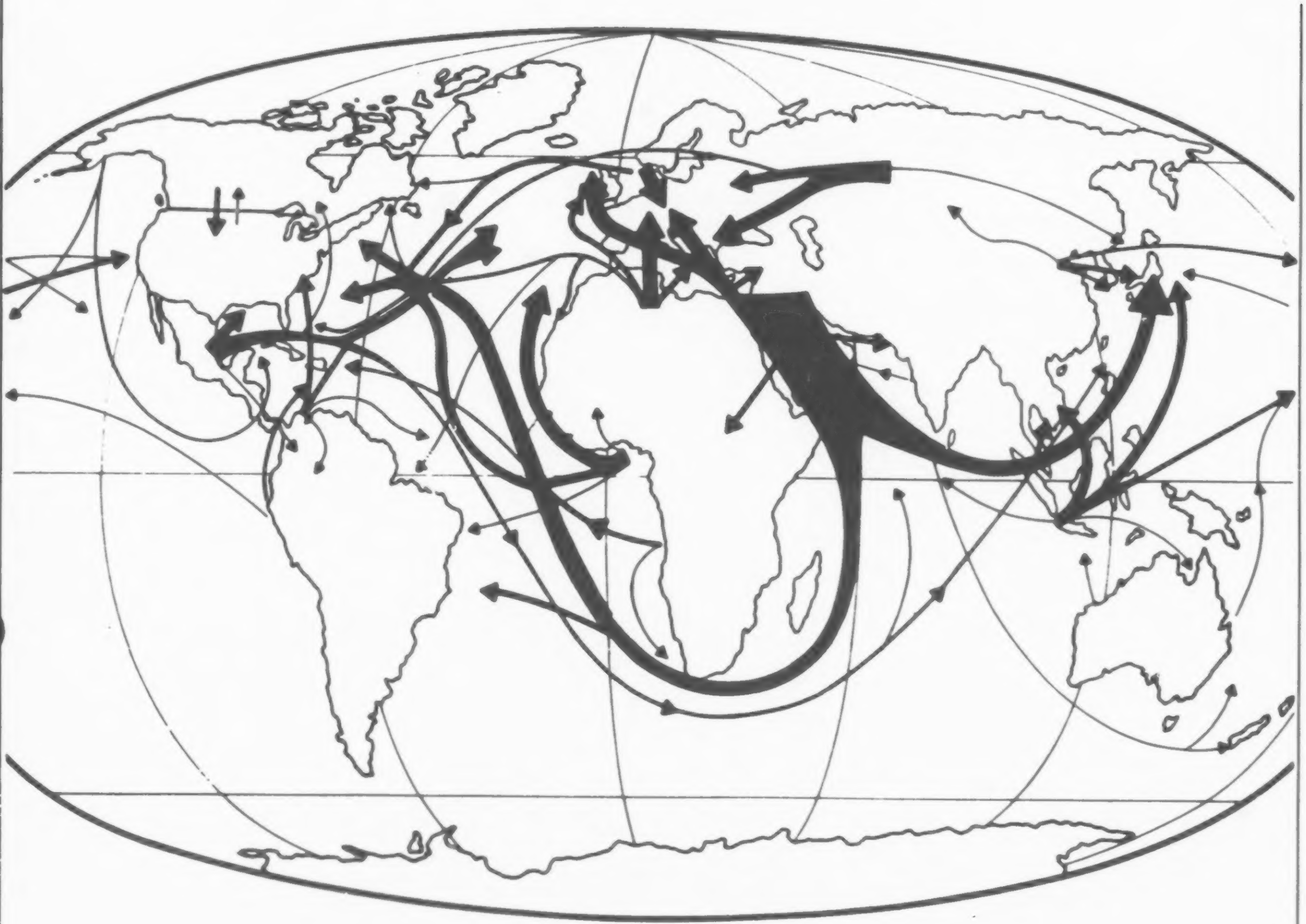
(*)Denotes less than one-half the unit of measure.

Note: Sum of components may not equal total due to independent rounding.

Sources: Refer to Appendix D.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. International Energy Annual 1988, p. 58. (Released for Printing November 7, 1989.)

WORLD CRUDE OIL FLOW, 1987



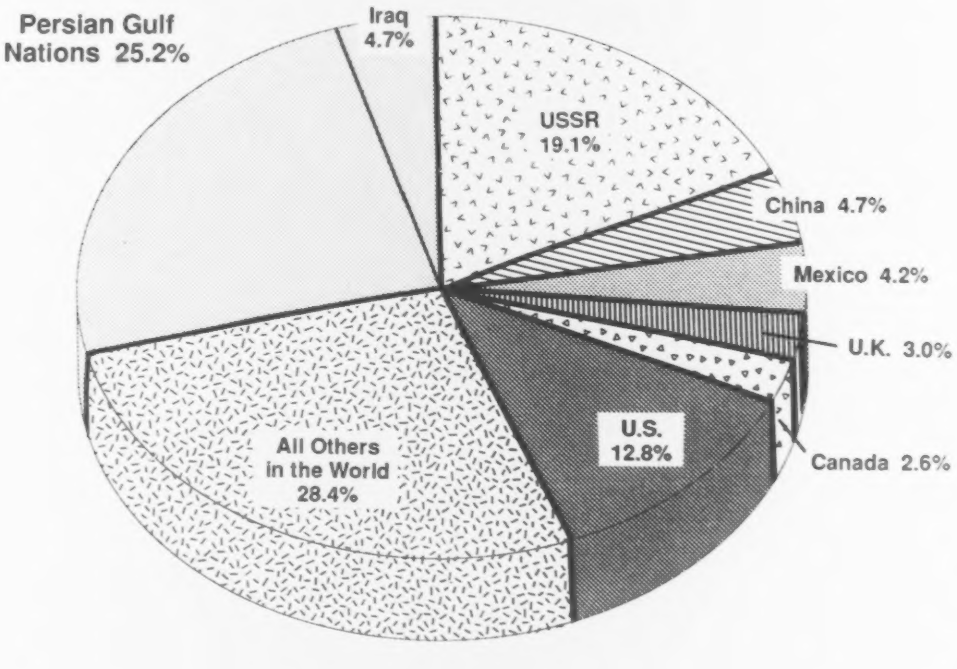
Arrows Indicate Origin and Destination
But Not Necessarily Specific Routes.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. International Energy Annual 1988, p. 59. (Released for Printing November 7, 1989.)

PERSIAN GULF NATIONS[a] PRODUCED AN ESTIMATED 25.2% OF WORLD'S CRUDE OIL[b] IN 1989. U.S. FIGURE PUT AT 12.8%

[a] The Persian Gulf Nations here are Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. Included, also, is production from the Neutral Zone between Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

[b] Includes lease condensate, excludes natural gas plant liquids.



Estimated Production, 1989: 59,521 (Thousand Barrels Per Day, Average)

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Energy. Monthly Energy Review, December 1989. (Released for printing March 27, 1990.) Tables 10.1a and 10.1b, Pp. 120 and 121.

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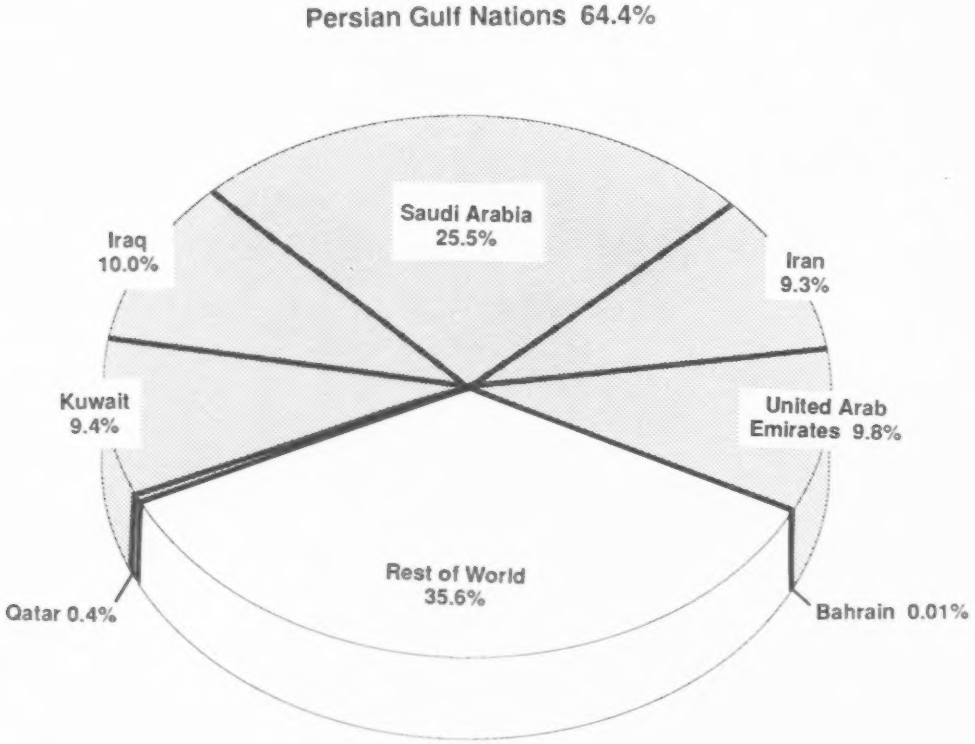
PERSIAN GULF NATIONS[a] ESTIMATED TO HAVE 64.4% OF WORLD'S PROVED RESERVES OF OIL, AS OF JANUARY 1, 1990.
U.S. FIGURE PUT AT 2.6%

All reserves figures except those for the USSR are reported as proved reserves recoverable with present technology and prices. USSR figures are "explored reserves" which includes proved, probable, and some possible.

[a] The Persian Gulf Nations here are Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. Included, also, is production from the Neutral Zone between Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.



Total Estimated Proved Reserves of Oil, January 1, 1990:
1,001,571,623 (1,000 bbl)

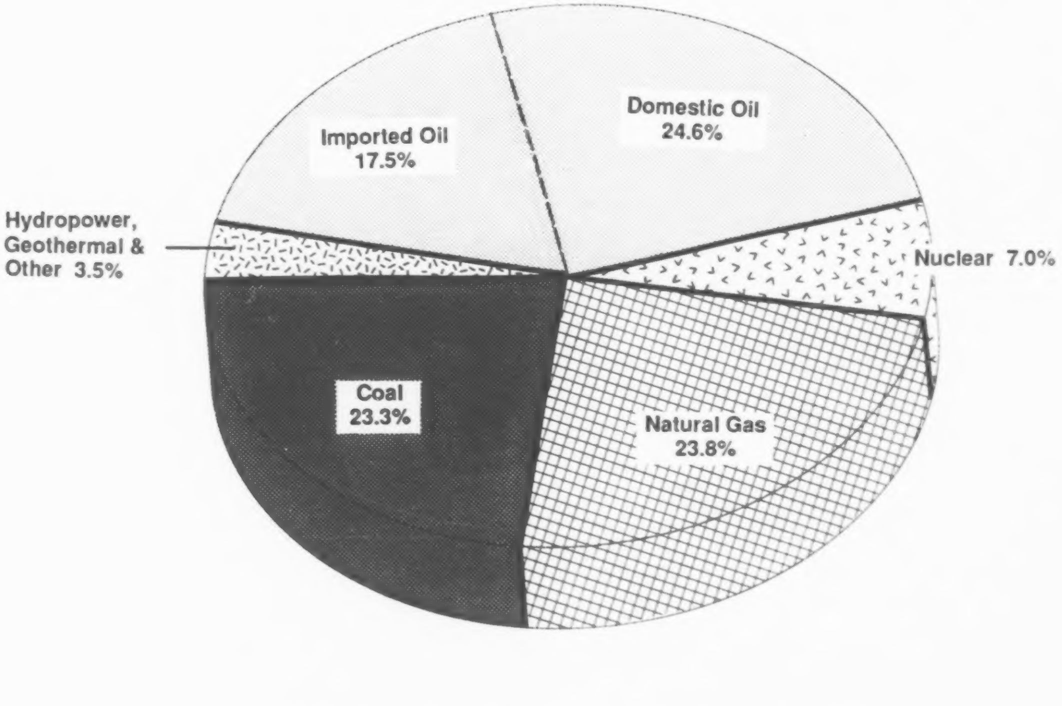
World Eagle chart. Data from "The Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal. December 25, 1989.

IN 1989, IMPORTED OIL ACCOUNTED FOR 17.5% OF THE TOTAL OF PRIMARY ENERGY CONSUMED BY THE U.S.

-- That Amount Represented 41.6% of Oil Consumed By The U.S. --

Also see page 1, and November 1990 issue, page 10.

In 1989, the U.S. imported $49.7 billion of Total Petroleum and Selected Petroleum Products. ($35.5 billion of that amount was for crude petroleum.) The U.S. Merchandise Trade Deficit for 1989 was $109.4 billion.



Total Consumption, 1989: 81.244 Quadrillion Btu

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Monthly Energy Review, June 1990. Table 1.4 page 15 and Table 1.8 page 21. Also U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration.

REPLACING GASOLINE: ALTERNATIVE FUELS

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Methanol	Familiar liquid fuel Vehicle development relatively advanced Organic emissions (ozone precursors) will have lower reactivity than gasoline emissions Lower emissions of toxic pollutants, except formaldehyde Engine efficiency should be greater Abundant natural gas feedstock Less flammable than gasoline Can be made from coal or wood (as can gasoline), though at higher cost Flexfuel "transition" vehicle available	Range as much as 1/2 less, or larger fuel tanks Would likely be imported from overseas Formaldehyde emissions a potential problem, esp. at higher mileage, requires improved controls More toxic than gasoline M100 has non-visible flame, explosive in enclosed tanks Costs likely somewhat higher than gasoline, esp. during transition period Cold starts a problem for M100 Greenhouse problem if made from coal
Ethanol	Familiar liquid fuel Organic emissions will have lower reactivity than gasoline emissions (but higher than methanol) Lower emissions of toxic pollutants Engine efficiency should be greater Produced from domestic sources Flexfuel "transition" vehicle available Lower CO with gasohol (10 percent ethanol blend) Enzyme-based production from wood being developed	Much higher cost than gasoline Food/fuel competition at high production levels Supply is limited, esp. if made from corn Range as much as 1/3 less, or larger fuel tanks Cold starts a problem for E100
Natural Gas	Though imported, likely North American source for moderate supply (1 mmbd or more gasoline displaced) Excellent emission characteristics except for potential of somewhat higher NO$_x$ emissions Gas is abundant worldwide Modest greenhouse advantage Can be made from coal	Dedicated vehicles have remaining development needs Retail fuel distribution system must be built Range quite limited, need large fuel tanks w/added costs, reduced space (LNG range not as limited, comparable to methanol) Dual fuel "transition" vehicle has moderate performance, space penalties Slower refueling Greenhouse problem if made from coal
Electric	Fuel is domestically produced and widely available Minimal vehicular emissions Fuel capacity available (for nighttime recharging) Big greenhouse advantage if powered by nuclear or solar Wide variety of feedstocks in regular commercial use	Range, power very limited Much battery development required Slow refueling Batteries are heavy, bulky, have high replacement costs Vehicle space conditioning difficult Potential battery disposal problem Emissions for power generation can be significant
Hydrogen	Excellent emission characteristics—minimal hydrocarbons Would be domestically produced Big greenhouse advantage if derived from photovoltaic energy Possible fuel cell use	Range very limited, need heavy, bulky fuel storage Vehicle and total costs high Extensive research and development effort required Needs new infrastructure
Reformulated Gasoline	No infrastructure change except refineries Probable small to moderate emission reduction Engine modifications not required May be available for use by entire fleet, not just new vehicles	Emission benefits remain highly uncertain Costs uncertain, but will be significant No energy security or greenhouse advantage

Recent interest in alternative fuels for light-duty highway vehicles (automobiles and light trucks) is based on their potential to address three important societal problems: unhealthy levels of ozone in major urban areas; growing U.S. dependence on imported petroleum; and rising emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases. This assessment examines the following alternative fuels: methanol, ethanol, natural gas (in either compressed (CNG) or liquid (LNG) form), electricity (to drive electric vehicles (EVs)), hydrogen, and reformulated gasoline.

Substituting another fuel for gasoline affects the entire fuel cycle, with impacts not only on vehicular performance but on fuel handling and safety, materials requirements, feedstock requirements, and so forth. The variety of effects, coupled with the existence of the three separate "policy drivers" for introducing alternative fuels, create a complex set of trade-offs for policymakers to weigh. Further, there are *temporal* trade-offs: decisions made now about promoting short-term fuel options will affect the range of options open to future policymakers, e.g., by emplacing new infrastructure that is more or less adaptable to future fuel options, or by easing pressure on oil markets and reducing pressure for development of nonfossil alternative fuels. Table 1 presents some of the trade-offs among the alternative fuels relative to gasoline.

Source: Congress of the United States. Office of Technology Assessment. Replacing Gasoline: Alternative Fuels for Light-Duty Vehicles. September 1990. Pp. 1& 2.

continued ⟶

REPLACING GASOLINE continued

Box A—Alternative Transportation Fuels

gasoline—a motor vehicle fuel that is a complex blend of hydrocarbons and additives, produced primarily from the products of petroleum and natural gas. Typical octane (R+M/2[1]) level is 89.

methanol—commonly known as wood alcohol (CH_3OH), a light, volatile, flammable alcohol commonly made from natural gas. Volumetric energy content is about half that of gasoline (implies range for the same fuel volume is about half that for gasoline, unless higher efficiency is obtained). Octane level of 101.5, which allows use in a high compression engine. Much lower vapor pressure than gasoline (low evaporative emissions, but poor starting at low temperatures).

natural gas—a gas formed naturally from buried organic material, composed of a mixture of hydrocarbons, with methane (CH_4) being the dominant component. Octane level of 120 to 130. Volumetric energy content at 3,000 psi is about one-quarter that of gasoline.

liquid petroleum gas, LPG—a fuel consisting mostly of propane, derived from the liquid components of natural gas stripped out before the gas enters the pipeline, and the lightest hydrocarbons produced during petroleum refining.

ethanol—grain alcohol ($C_{25}OH$), generally produced by fermenting starch or sugar crops. Volumetric energy content is about two-thirds of gasoline. Octane level is 101.5. Much lower vapor pressure than gasoline.

hydrogen—H_2, the lightest gas. Very low energy density even as a cryogenic liquid, less than that of compressed natural gas. Combustion will produce no pollution except NO_x. Can be used in a fuel cell, as well as in an internal combustion engine.

electricity—would be used to run electric motors, with batteries as a storage medium. Currently available batteries do not attain a high energy density, creating range problems.

reformulated gasoline—gasoline that has been reblended specifically to reduce exhaust and evaporative emissions and/or to reduce the photochemical reactivity of these emissions (to avoid smog formation). Lower vapor pressure than standard gasoline (which reduces evaporative emissions), obtained by reducing quantities of the more volatile hydrocarbon components of gasoline. Addition of oxygenates to reduce carbon monoxide levels.

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[1] The average of research octane (R) and motor octane (M), which is the value found on the retail pump.

During the oil crises of the 1970s, Federal policymakers initiated a variety of programs designed to enhance U.S. energy security, mainly by supplementing or replacing gasoline with alternative fuels produced from domestic coal and oil shale. These programs generally were not viewed as successful, and they were largely abandoned with the perceived end of the oil crisis in the early 1980s.

During the past year, the debate on reauthorizing the Clean Air Act caused a resurgence of interest in alternative transportation fuels as an option for reducing ozone levels in urban areas that cannot otherwise meet air quality standards. In addition, the original concerns about energy security and the mounting trade deficit have reemerged as oil imports have grown rapidly over the past few years and as petroleum-driven conflict louves in the Middle East. A third concern—the possibility of greenhouse climate change—has increased interest in those alternative fuels that do not rely on fossil fuel feedstocks or that can otherwise offer a net reduction in greenhouse emissions.

The alternative fuels of primary interest for the U.S. fleet of automobiles and light trucks are:

- the alcohols methanol and ethanol, either alone or blended with gasoline;
- compressed or liquefied natural gas (CNG or LNG);
- liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) and propane;
- hydrogen; and
- electricity.

In addition, gasoline that has been reblended to reduce emissions, so-called "reformulated gasoline," is a recent addition to the list of new fuels. The fuels and their basic characteristics are described in box A. ❖

Source: Congress of the United States. Office of Technology Assessment. Replacing Gasoline: Alternative Fuels for Light-Duty Vehicles. September 1990. P. 5.

Text and Data From The International Atomic Energy Agency's February 1990 News Features: NUCLEAR DECOMMISSIONING PROJECTS AROUND THE WORLD

See text
on page 14.

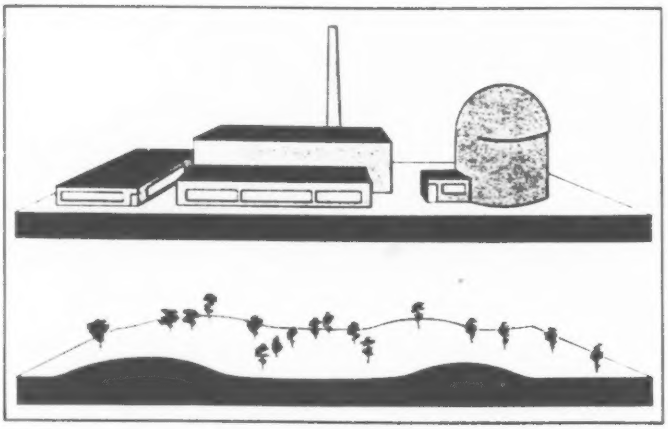
Over the past 35 years, considerable experience has been gained in decommissioning and rehabilitating many types of nuclear facilities. Others are now in various stages of decommissioning or soon are expected to be. All in all, some 145 nuclear facilities in 17 countries are listed in IAEA's inventory of projects either completed, planned, or in progress.

Country	Completed	In Progress	Planned	Total
USSR	1	1	2	4
U.S.	19	24	7	50
U.K.	6	6	2	14
Switzerland	--	2	--	2
Sweden	2	1	1	4
Spain	3	--	--	3
Poland	1	--	--	1
Norway	2	--	--	2
Netherlands	5	--	--	5
Japan	5	2	--	7
Italy	3	4	3	10
India	--	1	--	1
FRG	5	3	1	9
France	7	9	7	23
Czechoslovakia	1	1	--	2
Canada	4	1	1	6
Belgium	--	--	2	2
				145 Total

From The International Atomic Energy Agency's February 1990 News Features:

DECOMMISSIONING NUCLEAR FACILITIES: WORLD FACTS AND TRENDS

❶ Since 1960, more than 65 reactors and other nuclear facilities have been decommissioned worldwide No large nuclear power plants have been completely dismantled yet but the range of experience is extensive.
Some old prototype/demonstration nuclear plants are being dismantled in several countries.



Once shut down, the plant produces no additional radioactive materials.

❼ Various safe and effective decommissioning strategies and options exist. National authorities are responsible for selecting the appropriate strategy and for regulating associated activities.

❷ By the turn of the century, it is estimated that 64 nuclear power reactors around the world and 256 research reactors will have been generating electricity or serving as research tools for 30 years or more. They will become likely candidates for decommissioning.

❸ National and international criteria applicable during decommissioning exist for radiation protection, waste disposal, transport, environmental protection, quality control, safety, and other important areas. In many countries, however, regulations that are specific to decommissioning are evolving.

❹ National regulations governing decommissioning activities frequently derive from standards and recommendations of the IAEA and other international bodies.

❺ The costs of decommissioning nuclear power plants, including disposal of associated wastes, are small and usually do not exceed 2% of the total costs of electricity generation. Some countries include fees in their electricity pricing structure to cover the estimated cost of decommissioning.

❻ Most parts of a nuclear facility — about 85% — never become radioactive, or are contaminated at very low levels. Over 90% of all wastes from decommissioning can be treated as low-level waste. In many cases, materials and equipment from decommissioning can be recycled and reused.

❽ The length of time it takes to fully decommission a nuclear plant so that the site can be released for unrestricted uses depends upon when all radioactive material is completely removed from the site. Prompt dismantling can free the site in less than 10 years. The time is longer, up to 100 years, if dismantlement is deferred to allow extra time for radioactivity levels to decline to lower levels.

❾ Worker exposure to radiation is no higher during decommissioning than during routine operation of the nuclear plant and is strictly regulated and monitored.

❿ Public exposure to radiation from decommissioning activities is negligible, representing less than 0.1% of exposure from natural sources of radiation in the environment. ■

This edition was issued by the IAEA to highlight international experience in decommissioning nuclear facilities worldwide. It was prepared by the Division of Public Information in co-operation with the Division of Nuclear Fuel Cycle and Waste Management. Information may be extracted or reprinted with acknowledgement of the IAEA. Further information may be obtained from the Division of Nuclear Fuel Cycle and Waste Management.
P.O. Box 100. A-1400 Vienna, Austria; Telex 1-12645, Cable INATOM VIENNA; Tel. (43)1-2360, Facsimile (43)1-234564 Research/preparation: R. Quevenco, Z. Dlouhy.

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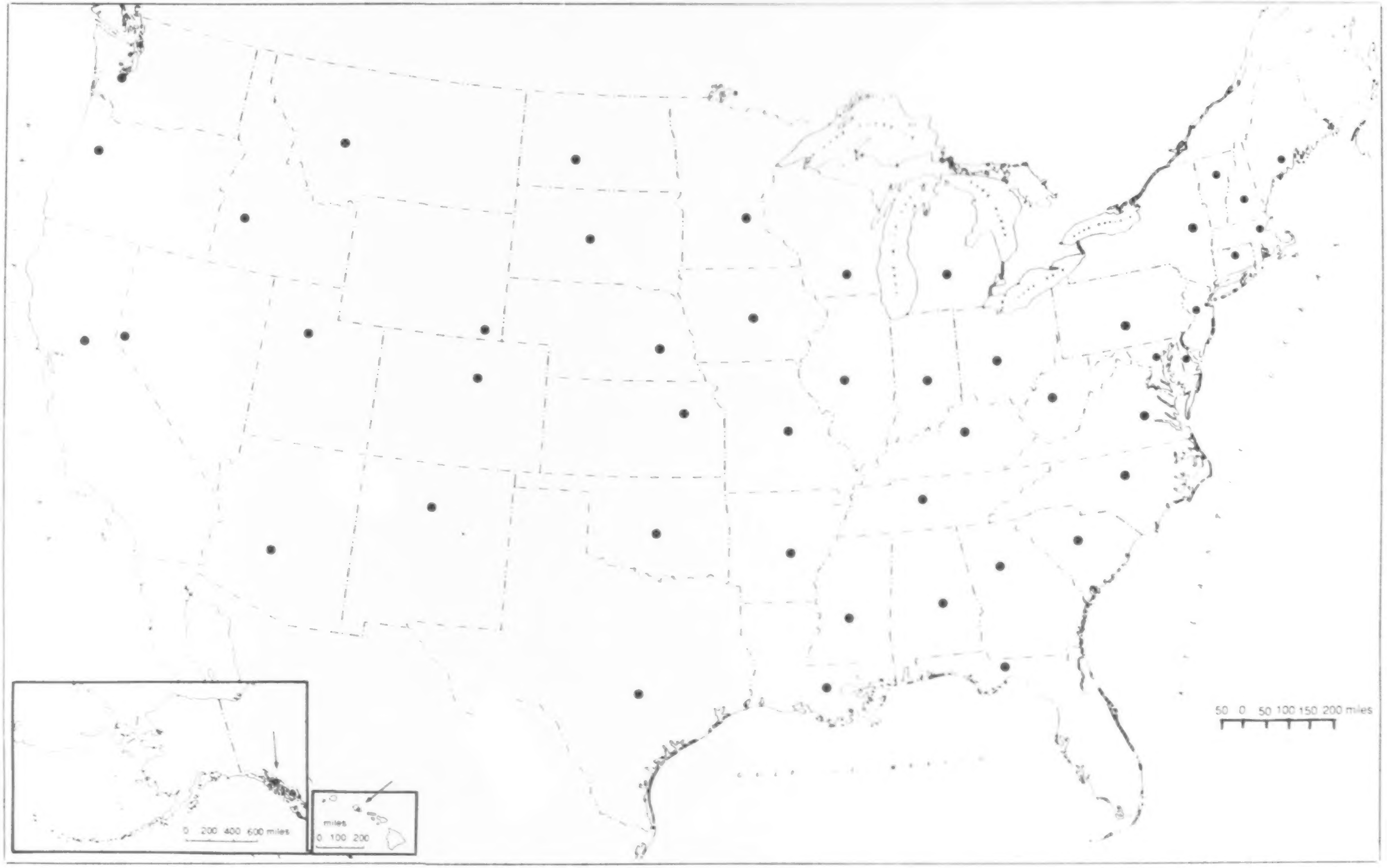
THE STATES AND THEIR CAPITALS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A BRIEF CHRONOLOGY OF KEY EVENTS AFFECTING GLOBAL CLIMATE CHANGE

1880-1987	Average global temperature increased about 1 degree Fahrenheit.
1980-1988	1980, 1981, 1983, 1987, and 1988 were the 5 warmest years in the past century.
October 1985	State of scientific knowledge and consensus on greenhouse gases and climate change summarized at a joint UNEP/WMO/ICSU conference in Villach, Austria.
June 1986	Need to consider policy options of greenhouse warming asserted during Senate hearings before a subcommittee of the Environment and Public Works Committee. National Academy of Sciences asked to review policy issues of greenhouse gases.
September 1986	Group of senators requested EPA to prepare two reports for the Congress—one report on the health and environmental effects of climate change and one on policy options for stabilizing greenhouse gas emissions at current levels.
June 1987	WMO and UNEP agreed to establish intergovernmental mechanism to assess available scientific data and formulate response strategies for climate change.
September 1987	Protocol to reduce CFC production and emissions is signed by group of nations in Montreal, Canada.
December 1987	Global Climate Protection Act of 1987 (P.L. 100-204) enacted.
January 1988	President issues report to the Congress on current government research activities related to the greenhouse effect.
April 1988	WMO/UNEP released World Climate Program impact studies report entitled Developing Policies For Responding To Climate Change, based on the results of international workshops held in 1987.
June 1988	Director of NASA's Institute for Space Studies told Senate Committee on Energy and Natural Resources that there was a high probability that global warming due to the greenhouse effect "is here."
July 1988	Comprehensive bills addressing global warming introduced in the Congress.
November 1988	Initial meeting of the WMO/UNEP Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change held in Geneva to establish reporting plans.
January 1989	Montreal Protocol to reduce CFC production and emissions entered into force.
	President submits to the Congress a "cross-cut" budget and strategy for global change research.
Jan.-Feb. 1989	The IPCC Response Strategies Working Group convenes first meeting in Washington, D.C.
March 1989	EPA's draft "stabilization" report presented to the Congress.
	President announced U.S. decision to join other nations in supporting elimination of CFCs by the year 2000.
May 1989	IPCC Response Strategies Working Group Steering Committee and subgroup meetings held in Geneva, Switzerland.
June 1989	Second meeting of full IPCC panel held in Nairobi.
October 1989	Second meeting of IPCC Response Strategies Working Group held in Geneva.
November 1989	First international conference to specifically address global warming held in the Netherlands.

Abbreviations

AID	Agency for International Development
CEQ	Council on Environmental Quality
CES	Committee on Earth Sciences
CFC	Chlorofluorocarbon
DOE	Department of Energy
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
FCCSET	Federal Coordinating Council for Science, Engineering, and Technology
GAO	General Accounting Office
ICSU	International Council of Scientific Unions
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCPO	National Climate Program Office
NCPPB	National Climate Program Policy Board
NGO	Nongovernment Organization
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NSF	National Science Foundation
OES	Bureau of Oceans and International Environmental and Scientific Affairs
OMB	Office of Management and Budget
OSTP	Office of Science and Technology Policy
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

Source: United States General Accounting Office. Global Warming: Administration Approach Cautious Pending Validation of Threat. January 1990. Pp. 7 & 36.

PROFILES

Toward Controlling Pollution

"...Generally, Americans still have more stringent, comprehensive pollution control laws than Europeans, and enforcement is often even spottier overseas than in the United States. For example, a European law requiring pollution control devices on new cars does not take complete effect until 1993. Leaded gasoline is still the dominant fuel in some parts of Europe, but unleaded gasoline is becoming increasingly available.

The infrastructure for public participation in environmental decision-making is also less advanced in Europe than in the United States. Environmental impact statements, freedom of information act privileges, and mandatory public hearings, for example, are not institutionalized the way they are in the United States.

At the same time, Europe has fewer options and less margin for error than the United States because of a smaller land mass, a higher population density, and a sparse endowment of natural resources. Yet Europe is not without advantages. Its size and density, for example, can work in its favor: the compactness of many of its cities and their close proximity to each other facilitate energy conservation and refinements in urban planning. Mass transit and bicycle use, which are energy-saving and anti-pollution strategies of the first order, are also easier to implement.

In addition, Europeans have a superior foundation than Americans for energy conservation. This largely results from the difficult times experienced in the aftermath of World War II. Even today, the hallways in many European apartment buildings, for example, still have lights that are set to remain on for only a minute or two while someone needs them. Europeans also seem psychologically better positioned than Americans to conserve energy. They use only about one-half of the energy and one-third of the water per capita than do Americans in the normal course of a day, without any appreciable difference in living standards.

Finally, Europe has devoted proportionately more money to environmental research to develop renewable energy resources than has the United States; and, incredible as it may seem, a greater percentage of Europeans than Americans are served by sewage treatment facilities.

It is to be hoped that all these comparisons will soon become moot. That will certainly be the case if public opinion throughout the world continues to coalesce and to force heads of state to act in concert against global environmental degradation."

Excerpted from an article by Edward Flattau, a nationally syndicated environment columnist based in Washington DC. EUROPE Magazine, October 1990. Pp. 13-14. Reprinted with permission.

US Inmates Will be Required to Read at 12th-Grade Level or Face Sanctions

Federal prison inmates soon will be required to attend classes until they can read at the 12th-grade level and complete a high school equivalency degree, the Justice Department said yesterday [October 17, 1990].

If they refuse to do so, they will be consigned to the lowest-paying prison jobs and could be disciplined, the department said...

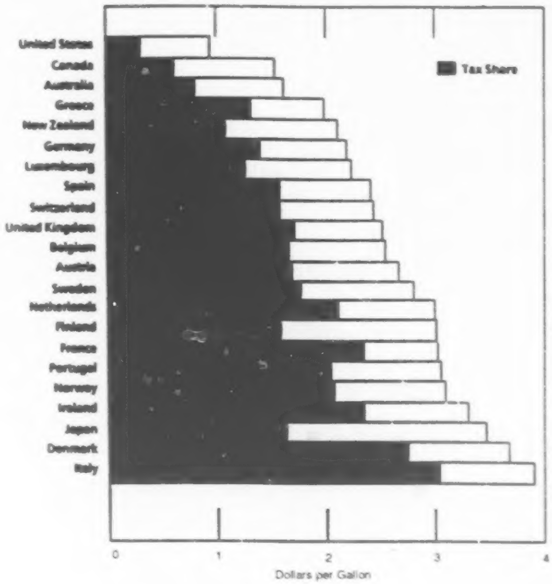
Tougher literacy standards are intended to increase the chances that inmates will not return to crime once they are released form prison...

The higher standards are being imposed at a time when 20 percent of the 58,000 federal inmates cannot read at the eighth-grade level and 40 percent have a history of drug or alcohol abuse. The education Department says up to 30 million US adults are illiterate....

Excerpted from an Associated Press article in The Boston Globe, October 18, 1990. P.8.

UNIPUB (a distributor of International publications) has published a 16-page Fall 1990 booklet offering 36 titles on Women's Studies. For a copy of the booklet, write: UNIPUB, 4611-F Assembly Drive, Lanham MD 20706.

Share of Sales Taxes in Gasoline Prices in OECD Countries, Fourth Quarter 1988



Congress of the United States. (Congressional Budget Office. Federal Taxation of Tobacco, Alcoholic Beverages, and Motor Fuels. P.22.

continued ⟶

PROFILES continued

The World Car

U.S. auto companies offer a prime example of how global production networks can circumvent the intent of domestic policies. A sampling of the equity interest domestic auto companies have overseas reveals that GM owns a 50 percent stake in Saab-Scania (Sweden), 100 percent of Lotus (United Kingdom), 50 percent of Daewoo (South Korea), and 38 percent of Isuzu (Japan); Chrysler owns 12 percent of Mitsubishi (Japan), and 100 percent of Lamborghini (Italy); Ford owns 25 percent of Mazda (Japan), 10 percent of Kia (South Korea), and 100 percent of Jaguar (United Kingdom). [1]

This global reach recently allowed Ford to convert two of its less fuel-efficient cars (20 mpg) the Crown Victoria and the Grand Marquis, into "imports' by decreasing the share of U.S. produced parts from 90 percent to less than 75. This was done so that Ford's remaining "domestic" fleet of cars would meet the Federal Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standard set for the 1989 model year of 26.5 miles per gallon. [2] Shifting these two cars into the import column, Ford expects to reduce its domestic CAFE average by 0.6 or 0.7 miles per gallon. [3]

The reverse is also happening. In another effort to boost its domestic CAFE average, Ford plans to increase the domestic content of two of its smaller cars, now classified as imports, the Ford Probe and the Mercury Tracer. Doing so, will shift these cars out of the import classification, making them domestic cars where due to their small size they will help Ford meet the domestic CAFE standards. [4]

[1] "Spot the Difference," The Economist, Feb. 24, 1990, p.74.

[2] This switch did decrease the fuel efficiency of Ford's imports, but since this group is largely composed of small cars, the average across all imports was above Federal standards. Warren Brown, "Ford to Convert 2 Cars Into Imports," The Washington Post, June 20, 1989, P.D1.

[3] David Versical, "CAFE Crisis: Ford to Count Big Cars as Imports," Automotive News, June 19, 1989, p.8.

[4] David Versical, "Small-Car Content Shift Leads GM's CAFE Plan," Automotive News, June 26, 1989, p.1.

Source: United States Congress. Office of Technology Assessment. Energy Use and the U.S. Economy. 1990. P. 25.

New Concept Could Ease Radioactive Waste Storage Problems

A new concept that could help deal with radioactive waste at Department of Energy nuclear materials processing sites has been developed at the Los Alamos (CA) National Laboratory.

The concept, devised by physicist Charles Bowman, is based on transmutation -- converting long-lived radioactive elements into short-lived or stable ones. Transmutation has been proposed and studied before, but preliminary calculations indicate the new concept could be more efficient than any method so far proposed.

Nuclear waste accumulated at DOE production sites consists mainly of radioactive material remaining after the spent fuel used in producing plutonium and tritium has been processed to recover uranium and plutonium. This material must be isolated from the environment and from human contact for tens of thousands of years until its radioactivity decays to low levels.

Bowman's concept generates very large numbers of neutrons by directing an intense beam of subatomic particles (protons) into a heavy metal target. The target is surrounded by a heavy water moderator, which slows the neutrons down so they are more easily absorbed by atoms of radioactive waste circulating in the moderator.

The extra neutrons transform the unstable atoms to other atoms, which either are stable or decay relatively quickly.

According to Bowman, this intense source of slow neutrons is the key to the process..

"Slow neutrons," he said, "are absorbed much more readily by the radioactive waste atoms than the fast neutrons used in earlier similar concepts, and some important nuclear reactions become possible that would not be significant at lower intensities."

The concept allows rapid conversion of radioactive waste with much smaller amounts of material than conventional concepts, which require up to 100 times as much waste in the system to achieve the same rate of conversion.

Mike Stevenson, deputy associate director for energy and technology at Los Alamos, said that the proposed system will not eliminate the need for some form of isolated storage but it could reduce the required storage time from tens of thousands of years to a few hundred years.

Stevenson said the process is still in the conceptual stage but estimated a demonstration unit could be operating in 10 years and a full-scale plant could be in operation at one of the DOE production sites about five years later.

University of California UC Clip Sheet,
September 26, 1990.

CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS ON INCOMES AND POVERTY RATES

Median Household Income Up In 1989, Poverty Rate Unchanged

Real median household income rose 1.3 percent in 1989, to $28,910, a report from the Commerce Department's Census Bureau shows.

The increase follows two consecutive years when real household income remained unchanged.

The 1989 poverty rate of 12.8 percent was not significantly different from the 1988 rate. The 1989 total of 31.5 million persons below the government's official poverty level was unchanged from 1988.

The report, "Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1989" (advance report) shows income and poverty figures based on pre-tax money income only. Another report released today by the Census Bureau, "Measuring the Effect of Taxes and Benefits on Income and Poverty: 1989," shows how taxes and noncash benefits affect the distribution of income and prevalence of poverty.

The real median income of households in the Northeast rose for the seventh consecutive year, up 2.4 percent from 1988 to $32,640. The median also rose in the West, to $31,090, but remained unchanged in the South at $25,870 and Midwest at $28,750.

Black households had a real income increase of 5.1 percent, to $18,080, while the incomes of White households ($30,410) and those of Hispanic origin ($21,920) did not change significantly from 1988.

The report also shows that the median income of Asian or Pacific Islander households at $36,100 was higher than the White median. At least part of this difference is associated with the larger size of Asian or Pacific Islander households since income per household member was about the same for Asian or Pacific Islander and White households.

Bureau analysts suggest using caution when interpreting the aggregate data shown in the report for Asian or Pacific Islander and Hispanic households because the totals may not reflect conditions of individual subgroups making up these populations.

Median family income in 1989 was $34,210, up 1.4 percent from 1988 in real terms. Real median family income has increased in six of the last seven years, with only 1988 showing no significant change.

The real income of married-couple families increased by 1.1 percent to $38,550, while there was no significant change for families with a female householder, no husband present ($16,440).

Real median earnings of women working year-round and full-time increased by 1.8 percent to $18,780, while those of men declined by 1.8 percent to $27,430. This was the second consecutive year in which earnings declined for men working year-round and full-time. The male/female earnings ratio was .68 in 1989, an all-time high. The ratio has increased from .60 in 1980.

Per capita income increased by 2.2 percent to $14,060. White per capita income showed a real increase of 2.3 percent, to $14,900, while that for Blacks, ($8,750) and Hispanics ($8,390) showed no significant change (the latter two figures are not significantly different from one another).

The report also examines the rise in income inequality over the last two decades. In 1989, the highest 20 percent of households received 46.8 percent of the total income received by all households, higher than the comparable figure for 1969 (43.0 percent). This change was accompanied by somewhat lower shares going to the lowest 20 percent and middle 60 percent of the households. The report examines some of the demographic factors that may partially explain the growth of income inequality over time.

The report notes that both the number of poor (31.5 million) and the poverty rate (12.8 percent) have declined since the most recent peak in 1983 (35.3 million poor and a poverty rate of 15.2 percent), but both remain above the most recent lows in 1978 (24.5 million poor and a rate of 11.4 percent).

Half of the nation's poor in 1989 were either children under age 18 (39.9 percent) or persons 65 and over (10.7 percent). The poverty rate for children continues to be higher than any other age group (19.6 percent). No age group had an increase in its poverty rate between 1988 and 1989.

The poverty rates for Whites (10.0), Blacks (30.7) and Hispanics (26.2) did not change between 1988 and 1989. For Asians or Pacific Islanders, the largest

continued →

INCOMES AND POVERTY RATES continued

component of the remaining race groups, the poverty rate was 14.1 percent in 1989, a decrease of 3.2 percentage points from their rate in 1988.

As has been the case since 1985, the Northeast had the lowest poverty rate (10.0) among the nation's four regions. No region had a significant change between 1988 and 1989. The South continues to have the highest poverty rate (15.4 percent); the South, with 34 percent of the nation's population, has a disproportionately large share of the nation's poor (41.0 percent).

The poverty rate for families was 10.3 percent, unchanged from 1988. It was lowest for married-couple families (5.6 percent), who were 43.2 percent of all poor families, and highest for families with a female householder and no spouse present (a poverty rate of 32.2 percent). About 51.7 percent of poor families were of this latter type, a figure not statistically different from that for 1988.

The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $12,675 in 1989 and $12,091 in 1988.

Copies of this advance report, P-60, No. 168, may be purchased for $7.50 each prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington DC 20402 (202-783-3238). The GPO stock number is 803-005-30015-3.

A Broadened Definition of Income In A Second Study.

The second report released today by the Census Bureau shows the effects on income and poverty estimates when income and payroll taxes are subtracted from the income definition and when selected sources of income (including noncash benefits) are added to the definition.

The data are based on experimental techniques that assign values to noncash benefits including food stamps, school lunches, rent subsidies, Medicare and Medicaid coverage, employer contributions to health insurance, and the estimated income that is derived from home equity. "Measuring the Effect of Benefits and Taxes on Income and Poverty: 1989," presents estimates for 1987 through 1989. (The report, P-60, No. 169-RD, is available from the GPO for $8.50, stock number 803-005-30016-1.)

According to the study, the use of a broadened definition of income that includes the effect of taxes, cash and noncash benefits, capital gains, and net return on home equity results in a more equal distribution of income than under the official definition. The effect of government transfers in reducing income inequality is considerably greater than the effect of taxes.

The use of a broadened definition of income has a significant impact on comparisons among population subgroups. Under the official money income definition, the median income in 1989 of Black households was 59 percent of the White median. The use of a definition of income that has been broadened to include the effect of taxes and noncash benefits results in a ratio of 66 percent.

The ratio of the median income of Hispanic to White households was 72 percent in 1989 under the official income definition. It rises to 77 percent under the broadened definition.

The report also presents data on the effect of taxes and benefits on the prevalence of poverty. The use of an after tax definition that includes the value of capital gains, employee health benefits, and noncash benefits would reduce the official poverty rate in 1989 from 12.8 percent to 10.4 percent. An analysis shows that nonmeans-tested government cash transfers, primarily Social Security, had the greatest effect on poverty estimates. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Release CB90 171, September 26, 1990.

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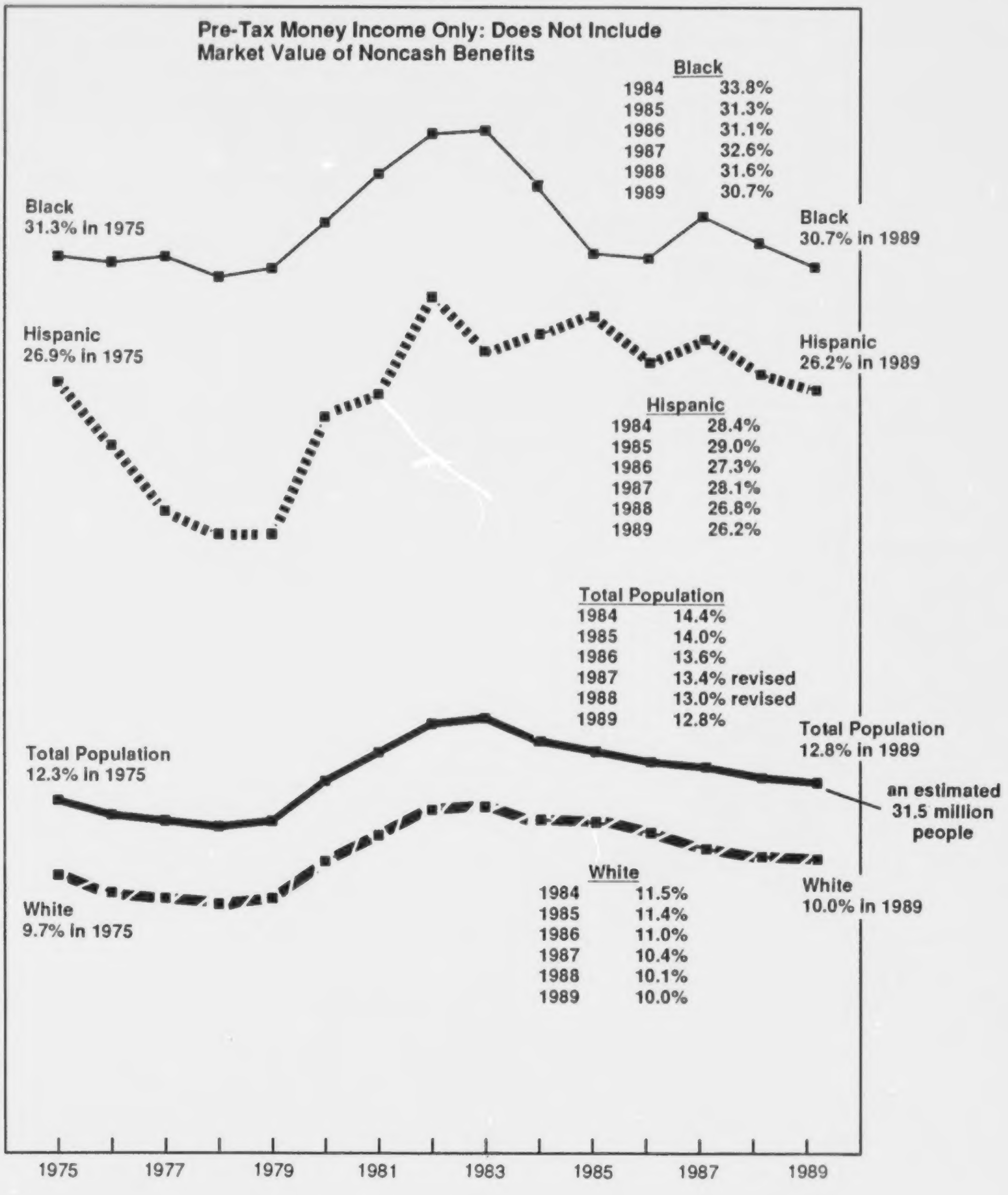
THE BUREAU OF THE CENSUS SAYS NEARLY 32 MILLION AMERICANS CONTINUE TO LIVE IN POVERTY

(For each category, percentage of the population living below the poverty level. Hispanic people may be of any race.)



Poverty Threshold Cash Income for Family of 4 in 1989: $12,675.

The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies.

World Eagle graph. Data from the 1988 Statistical Abstract of the United States, Table 713; and from Bureau of the Census Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1988 (Advance Report), Series P-60, No. 166; and from Census Release CB90-171, September 26, 1990

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CONCERNING PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME

Table 2.—Twenty Highest and Lowest Per Capita Personal Incomes for Counties in the United States, 1988

[Counties with total personal incomes of 50 million dollars or more]

County	Twenty highest per capita incomes		County	Twenty lowest per capita incomes	
	Dollars	Percent of national average		Dollars	Percent of national average
Haines Borough, Alaska[1]	33,599	203.8	Starr, Texas	4,313	26.2
Marin, California	32,417	196.6	Shannon, South Dakota	4,625	28.0
New York, New York	32,049	194.4	Maverick, Texas	5,568	33.8
Somerset, New Jersey	30,666	186.0	Dimmit, Texas	6,357	38.6
Pitkin, Colorado	30,447	184.6	McCreary, Kentucky	6,391	38.8
Arlington, Virginia	30,248	183.4	Zavala, Texas	6,511	39.5
Westchester, New York	29,124	176.6	Todd, South Dakota	6,685	40.5
Fairfield, Connecticut	29,084	176.4	Apache, Arizona	6,756	41.0
Alexandria City, Virginia	28,699	174.0	Jackson, Kentucky	6,919	42.0
Bergen, New Jersey	28,626	173.6	Clay, West Virginia	6,929	42.0
Sherman, Texas	28,264	171.4	Edmonson, Kentucky	7,200	43.7
Hunterdon, New Jersey	28,163	170.8	Magoffin, Kentucky	7,247	43.9
Morris, New Jersey	27,970	169.6	Shannon, Missouri	7,267	44.1
Montgomery, Maryland	27,831	168.8	Hidalgo, Texas	7,302	44.3
Nassau, New York	26,669	161.7	Conejos, Colorado	7,307	44.3
Howard, Maryland	26,526	160.9	Clay, Kentucky	7,337	44.5
Fairfax, F'fx City, Falls Ch., Va	26,441	160.3	St. Helena, Louisiana	7,342	44.5
San Mateo, California	25,846	156.7	Zapata, Texas	7,370	44.7
Hamilton, Kansas	25,338	153.7	Willacy, Texas	7,371	44.7
Cheyenne, Colorado	25,249	153.1	Lee, Kentucky	7,401	44.9

[1] Census division, Alaska does not have county units.

Table 3.—Total and Per Capita Personal Income and Population by Region, 1983-88

Area	Total personal income			Per capita personal income					Total population		
	Millions of dollars		Percent change	Dollars		Percent change	Percent of national average		Thousands		Percent change
	1983	1988	1983-88	1983	1988	1983-88	1983	1988	1983	1988	1983-88
United States	2,834,385	4,053,282	43.0	12,100	16,490	36.3	100.0	100.0	234,254	245,803	4.9
Metropolitan portion	2,312,415	3,344,112	44.6	12,903	17,622	36.6	106.6	106.9	179,218	189,774	5.9
Nonmetropolitan portion	521,970	709,170	35.9	9,484	12,657	33.5	78.4	76.8	55,036	56,029	1.8
New England region	169,145	261,528	54.6	13,544	20,174	49.0	111.9	122.3	12,489	12,964	3.8
Metropolitan portion	145,991	224,971	54.1	13,971	20,865	49.4	115.5	126.5	10,450	10,782	3.2
Nonmetropolitan portion	23,154	36,556	57.9	11,354	16,758	47.6	93.8	101.6	2,039	2,181	7.0
Mideast region	570,631	825,874	44.7	13,411	18,972	41.5	110.8	115.1	42,549	43,532	2.3
Metropolitan portion	532,405	772,360	45.1	13,770	19,513	41.7	113.8	118.3	38,665	39,581	2.4
Nonmetropolitan portion	38,225	53,514	40.0	9,840	13,547	37.7	81.3	82.2	3,885	3,950	1.7
Great Lakes region	493,266	683,924	38.7	11,882	16,237	36.7	98.2	98.5	41,515	42,120	1.5
Metropolitan portion	400,085	558,251	39.5	12,484	17,152	37.4	103.2	104.0	32,048	32,548	1.6
Nonmetropolitan portion	93,181	125,673	34.9	9,842	13,129	33.4	81.3	79.6	9,467	9,573	1.1
Plains region	200,485	273,325	36.3	11,508	15,390	33.7	95.1	93.3	17,422	17,759	1.9
Metropolitan portion	122,951	172,419	40.2	12,863	17,150	33.3	106.3	104.0	9,559	10,054	5.2
Nonmetropolitan portion	77,535	100,906	30.1	9,861	13,095	32.8	81.5	79.4	7,863	7,706	-2.0
Southeast region	577,331	848,413	47.0	10,485	14,460	37.9	86.7	87.7	55,062	58,672	6.6
Metropolitan portion	411,734	614,991	49.4	11,592	15,936	37.5	95.8	96.6	35,519	38,592	8.7
Nonmetropolitan portion	165,598	233,421	41.0	8,473	11,625	37.2	70.0	70.5	19,543	20,079	2.7
Southwest region	272,359	359,914	32.2	11,599	14,354	23.8	95.9	87.0	23,481	25,074	6.8
Metropolitan portion	214,720	287,384	33.8	12,306	15,132	23.0	101.7	91.8	17,449	18,992	8.8
Nonmetropolitan portion	57,639	72,530	25.8	9,556	11,926	24.8	79.0	72.3	6,032	6,082	.8
Rocky Mountain region	80,934	104,486	29.1	11,456	14,357	25.3	94.7	87.1	7,065	7,278	3.0
Metropolitan portion	53,132	70,495	32.7	12,388	15,526	25.3	102.4	94.2	4,289	4,541	5.9
Nonmetropolitan portion	27,802	33,991	22.3	10,015	12,417	24.0	82.8	75.3	2,776	2,737	-1.4
Far West region	448,600	667,439	48.8	13,524	18,145	34.2	111.8	110.0	33,170	36,783	10.9
Metropolitan portion	416,630	623,762	49.7	13,782	18,549	34.6	113.9	112.5	30,229	33,627	11.2
Nonmetropolitan portion	31,970	43,677	36.6	10,872	13,842	27.3	89.9	83.9	2,941	3,156	7.3
Alaska	8,758	9,991	14.1	18,136	19,051	5.1	149.9	115.5	483	524	8.6
Hawaii	12,875	18,388	42.8	12,640	16,743	32.5	104.5	101.5	1,019	1,098	7.8

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Local Area Personal Income, 1983-88. Volume 1. Summary. July 1990. P.4.

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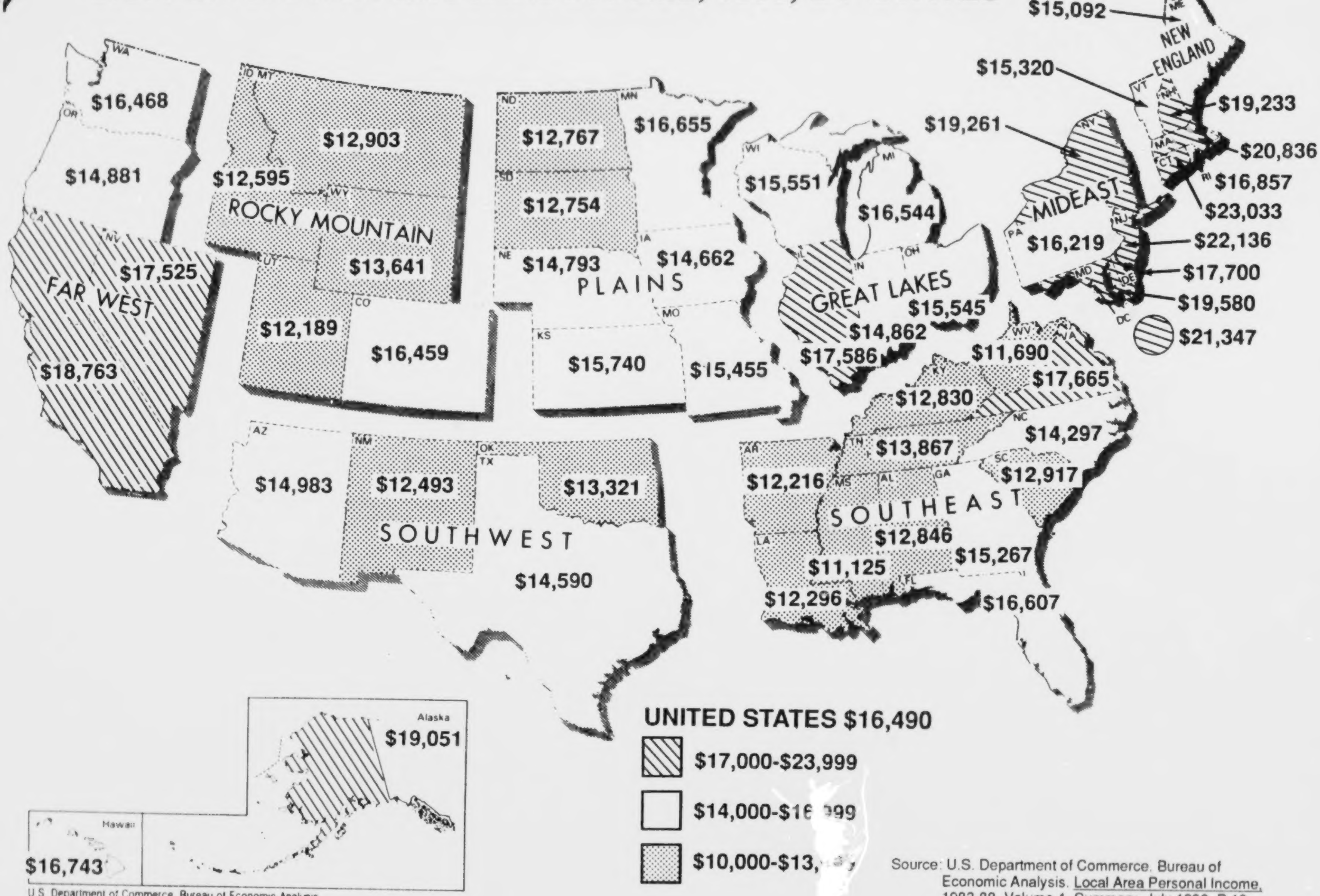
U.S. PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME, 1988, BY STATES


$15,092 ME
NEW ENGLAND
$15,320 VT
NH $19,233
$19,261 NY
MA $20,836
RI $16,857
CT $23,033
WA $16,468
OR $14,881
ID MT $12,903
$12,595
WY
ROCKY MOUNTAIN
$13,641
ND $12,767
SD $12,754
NE $14,793
MN $16,655
IA $14,662
PLAINS
WI $15,551
MI $16,544
MIDEAST
PA $16,219
NJ $22,136
MD $17,700
DE $19,580
DC $21,347
CA NV
$17,525
FAR WEST
$18,763
UT $12,189
CO $16,459
KS $15,740
MO $15,455
IL IN OH
GREAT LAKES
$15,545
$14,862
$17,586
WV $11,690
VA $17,665
KY $12,830
NC $14,297
TN $13,867
SC $12,917
AR $12,216
MS AL GA
SOUTHEAST
$12,846
$11,125
$15,267
LA $12,296
FL $16,607
AZ $14,983
NM $12,493
OK TX $13,321
SOUTHWEST
$14,590
Alaska $19,051
Hawaii $16,743
UNITED STATES $16,490
▨ $17,000-$23,999
☐ $14,000-$16,999
▒ $10,000-$13,[illegible]

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Local Area Personal Income, 1983-88. Volume 1. Summary. July 1990. P.19.

1989 STATE TAX REVENUES UP 7.5 PERCENT, CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS

STATE TAX REVENUES

State tax collections totaled $284 billion in 1989, up 7.5 percent from $264 billion in 1988, according to a report released by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

The largest gains were in Oregon and California, up 22, 5 percent and 14.2 percent respectively. Tax collection increases of 10 percent or more occurred in the eight states listed below.

State	1989 Tax (millions of dollars)	1988 Tax (millions of dollars)	Percent Change from 1988 to 1989
Oregon	$ 2,586	$ 2,111	22.5
California	41,214	36,074	14.2
Delaware	1,130	996	13.4
Alaska	1,410	1,251	12.7
Idaho	1,011	906	11.5
Indiana	5,903	5,312	11.1
Iowa	3,158	2,849	10.8
Kentucky	4,038	3,664	10.2

Two states had a decrease in 1989 tax collections, compared with three states in 1988. Utah reported the sharpest decrease, down 11.4 percent, while South Dakota's drop was 1.7 percent.

General sales and gross receipt taxes, the largest source of state tax revenue at $93.4 billion, were up 7.3 percent from 1988. Individual income taxes accounted for $88.7 billion, up 10.7 percent, while corporate net income taxes rose 10.4 percent to 23.9 billion.

Major Sources of State Tax Revenue in Fiscal Year 1989

(Amounts in billions of dollars)

Tax Source	1989	1988	Percent Change 1988 to 1989	1989 Percent Distribution
All Taxes	$284.0	$264.1	7.5	100.0
General Sales	93.4	87.1	7.3	32.9
Individual Income	88.7	80.1	10.7	31.2
Corporation Net Income	23.9	21.6	10.4	8.4
Motor Fuel Sales	18.0	17.2	4.8	6.3
Motor Vehicle Licenses	9.4	8.8	5.7	3.3
Insurance Sales	7.3	6.9	6.3	2.6
Public Utility Sales	6.1	6.2	-1.1	2.2
Severance	4.1	4.3	-4.2	1.5
All Other	33.1	31.8	3.9	11.7

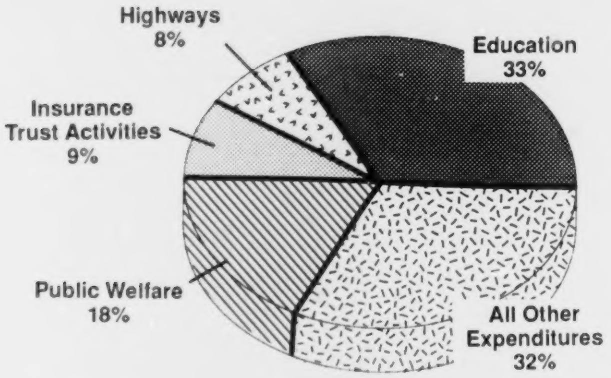
More than half of state tax revenues were collected by nine states. They were California ($41.2 billion); New York ($26.6 billion); Texas ($14.0 billion); Pennsylvania ($12.6 billion); Florida ($12.5 billion); Illinois ($11.8 billion); Michigan ($11.1 billion); Ohio ($10.8 billion); and New Jersey ($10.5 billion).

State tax revenue per capita ranged from lows of $554 in New Hampshire and $655 in South Dakota to highs of $2,675 in Alaska and $1,994 in Hawaii. The national average was $1,147.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-142, August 8, 1990.

STATE GOVERNMENTS SPENT $525 BILLION IN 1989, UP 8 PERCENT, SAYS CENSUS BUREAU

EXPENDITURES BY STATE GOVERNMENTS



World Eagle chart

State government spending increased 8 percent to $525 billion in fiscal year 1989, according to a report released today by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Expenditures for education, public welfare, insurance trust activities, and highways consumed most of the state resources.

The four activities accounted for more than two-thirds of total state government expenditures. Education consumed 33 percent; public welfare, 18 percent, insurance trust activities, 9 percent; and highways 8 percent.

State governments devoted 1 percent or less of their resources to each of 15 other activities. These included judicial and legal, police, protective inspection, and housing and community development.

The single largest component in the education total of $173 billion was $105 billion in payments to local governments, primarily to support elementary and secondary education programs. States spent another $56 billion for public higher education.

Public welfare spending amounted to $93 billion, up 10 percent over 1988. The largest portion, $49 billion, went for vendor payments (monies that went directly to organizations providing services such as medical care and commodities for the needy). Nearly $20 billion went to local governments in support of a variety of public welfare programs.

Highway expenditures by states totaled $43 billion, an increase of 5 percent. The largest amount was for capital outlay, $23 billion. The increase in highway capital outlays of 4 percent was considerably below the average annual percentage increase since 1984 of more than 10 percent.

The report, which also contains data on state government revenues, indebtedness and assets, shows that over one-half of all revenues were collected by just nine states. They are:

State	Revenue (billions)
California	$81.7
New York	60.7
Texas	29.4
Ohio	27.5
Pennsylvania	25.7
Michigan	22.7
Illinois	22.2
Florida	22.2
New Jersey	21.9

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB 90-170, September 24, 1990.

COUNTRIES RECEIVING U.S. ECONOMIC AND MILITARY ASSISTANCE IN FY 1989

REGION AND COUNTRY	ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE					MILITARY ASSISTANCE			Total of Countries For All Assistance Programs*	
	A.I.D.									
	Total*	Development Assistance	Supporting Assistance or Other	PL 480 Title I or II	Peace Corps	Military Assistance Program (MAP)	Foreign Military Sales Financing (FMS)	International Military Education and Training (IMET)		
TOTAL, ALL REGIONS		82	75	37	73	48	27	2	86	107
NEAR EAST AND SOUTH ASIA		13	9	8	11	4	4	2	12	17
Afghanistan		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Bangladesh		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Bhutan		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Cyprus		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	X
Egypt		X	X	X	X	—	—	—	X	X
Gaza		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Greece		—	—	—	—	—	X	X	X	X
India		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Israel		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	X
Jordan		X	X	X	—	—	—	—	X	X
Lebanon		X	X	X	X	—	—	—	X	X
Nepal		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
Oman		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X	X
Pakistan		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Sri Lanka		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Turkey		X	—	X	—	—	X	X	X	X
Yemen Arab Rep		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
LATIN AMERICA		17	15	13	17	9	12	—	21	25
Argentina		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X	X
Barbados		X	X	—	—	—	X	—	—	X
Belize		X	X	—	—	X	X	—	X	X
Bolivia		X	X	X	X	—	X	—	X	X
Brazil		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Chile		X	X	X	X	—	—	—	X	X
Columbia		—	—	—	X	—	X	—	X	X
Costa Rica		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Dominican Rep		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Educador		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
El Salvador		X	X	X	X	—	X	—	X	X
Grenada		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Guatemala		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Guyana		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Haiti		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Honduras		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Jamaica		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Mexico		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Nicaragua		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	X
Panama		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Paraguay		X	X	X	—	X	—	—	X	X
Peru		X	X	X	X	—	X	—	X	X
Trinidad & Tobago		—	—	—	X	—	X	—	—	X
Uruguay		X	X	—	—	—	X	—	X	X
Venezuela		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
EAST ASIA		4	4	2	4	3	3	—	7	9
Burma		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Indonesia		X	X	—	X	—	X	—	X	X
Korea, Rep. of		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Laos		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Malaysia		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Philippines		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Singapore		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Thailand		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Western Samoa		X	X	—	—	X	—	—	—	X
AFRICA		45	45	12	41	31	8	—	41	49
Algeria		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Angola		—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Benin (Dahomey)		—	—	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Botswana		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
Burkina		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Burundi		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Cameroon		X	X	—	—	X	—	—	X	X
Cape Verde		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Central Afr. Rep		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Chad		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Comoros		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	—	X
Congo, Rep. of		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Djibouti, Dem. Republic of		X	X	X	—	—	X	—	X	X
Equitorial Guinea Republic of		X	X	—	—	X	—	—	X	X
Ethiopia		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Gabon		—	—	—	—	X	—	—	X	X
Gambia, The		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Ghana		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Guinea		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Guinea-Bissau		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Ivory Coast		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Kenya		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Lesotho		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Liberia		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Madagascar		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Malawi		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
Mali		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Mauritania		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Mauritius		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Morocco		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Mozambique		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Niger		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
Nigeria		X	X	X	—	—	—	—	X	X
Rwanda		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Sao Tome & Principle		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Senegal		X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X
Seychelles		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Sierra Leone		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Somalia		X	X	X	X	—	—	—	X	X
South Africa, Republic of		X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	X
Sudan		X	X	X	X	—	—	—	X	X
Swaziland		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Tanzania		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Togo		X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X
Tunisia		X	X	X	X	X	—	—	X	X
Uganda		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	X	X
Zaire		X	X	—	X	X	X	—	X	X
Zambia		X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X
Zimbabwe		X	X	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
EUROPE		3	2	2	—	—	—	—	4	6
Hungary		X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	X
Malta		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Poland		X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	X
Portugal		X	—	X	—	—	—	—	X	X
Spain		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
Yugoslavia		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	X
OCEANIA		—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	1
Papua New Guinea		—	—	—	—	X	—	—	X	X

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*Each Country is counted only once if it receives one or more kinds of assistance. Included in the total count but not shown separately are such programs as Inter-American Foundation, International Narcotics Control.

Note: Based on U.S. Overseas Loans and Grants and Assistance from International Organizations.

*Each Country is counted only once if it receives funding from one or more appropriations.

Source: Agency for International Development, U.S. Overseas Loans and Grants and Assistance from International Organizations. Obligations and Loan Authorizations, July 1, 1945-September 30, 1989. Corrected Version. P. iv.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

U.S. ECONOMIC AND MILITARY ASSISTANCE, 1946-1989

SUMMARY FOR ALL COUNTRIES @ (U.S.FISCAL YEARS - MILLIONS OF DOLLARS)

U.S.OVERSEAS LOANS AND GRANTS-OBLIGATIONS AND LOAN AUTHORIZATIONS

PROGRAM	POST-WAR RELIEF PERIOD	MARSHALL PLAN PERIOD	MUTUAL SECURITY ACT PERIOD	FOREIGN ASSISTANCE ACT PERIOD					TOTAL FAA PERIOD	TOTAL LOANS AND GRANTS	PRINCIPAL REPAY-MENTS	OUT-STANDING LOAN BALANCES
	1946-48	1949-52	1953-61	1962-85	1986	1987	1988	1989	1962-89	1946-89 **	1946-89	1946-89 **
I.ECON. ASSIST.-TOTAL...	12,482	18,634	24,053	135,532	10,786	9,386	8,961	9,860	174,526	222,384	22,651	33,116
LOANS..............	5,967	2,551	5,850	42,805	1,216	1,138	852	694	46,706	55,770	22,651	33,116
GRANTS.............	6,515	16,083	18,203	92,727	9,570	8,248	8,109	9,166	127,820	166,614	-	-
A.AID AND PREDECESSOR..	-	14,506	16,885	77,699	7,446	6,355	5,705	6,136	103,341	130,540	8,720	19,357
LOANS***...........	-	1,577	3,266	24,542	326	247	159	7	25,281	28,076	8,720	19,357
GRANTS.............	-	12,929	13,619	53,157	7,120	6,108	5,546	6,129	78,060	102,464	-	-
(SEC.SUPP.ASSIST.)...	(-)	(348)	(8,853)	(35,920)	(4,913)	(3,912)	(3,021)	(3,412)	(51,177)	(58,996)		
B.FOOD FOR PEACE.......	-	83	6,416	32,207	1,649	1,442	1,404	1,638	38,340	41,516	7,656	11,916
LOANS..............	-	-	2,526	17,204	890	889	689	687	20,360	19,575	7,656	11,916
GRANTS.............	-	83	3,890	15,003	759	553	715	951	17,980	21,941	-	-
TITLE I-TOTAL[a].........	-	-	3,867	19,606	890	889	689	687	22,762	23,317	7,656	11,916
REPAY. IN $-LOANS.....	-	-	-	13,626	890	889	689	687	16,782	15,877	4,244	11,630
PAY. IN FOR. CURR.....	-	-	3,867	5,980	-	-	-	-	5,980	7,440	3,412	286
TITLE II-TOTAL.........	-	83	2,549	12,601	759	553	715	951	15,578	18,199	-	-
E.RELIEF,EC.DEV & WFP.	-	-	754	4,949	172	210	215	208	5,753	6,493	-	-
VOL.RELIEF AGENCY.....	-	83	1,795	7,652	587	343	500	743	9,825	11,706	-	-
C.OTHER ECON. ASSIST...	12,482	4,045	752	25,626	1,691	1,589	1,852	2,086	32,845	50,328	6,275	1,843
LOANS..............	5,967	974	58	1,059	-	2	4	-	1,065	8,119	6,275	1,843
GRANTS.............	6,515	3,071	694	24,567	1,691	1,587	1,848	2,086	31,780	42,209	-	-
CONTR. TO IFI....	635	-	189	17,643	1,131	949	1,206	1,315	22,244	23,068	-	-
PEACE CORPS......	-	-	-	2,212	124	131	152	153	2,772	2,767	-	-
NARCOTICS........	-	-	-	457	60	118	99	101	835	896	-	-
OTHER............	5,880	3,071	505	4,256	376	389	391	517	5,928	15,478	-	-
II.MIL. ASSIST.-TOTAL...	481	10,064	19,302	83,122	5,839	5,102	4,831	4,828	103,722	136,002	22,427	17,973
LOANS..............	-	-	161	33,578	1,980	953	763	410	37,685	40,399	22,427	17,973
GRANTS.............	481	10,064	19,141	49,544	3,859	4,149	4,068	4,418	66,037	95,603	-	-
A.MAP GRANTS..........	-	9,154	16,547	30,408	798	951	703	467	33,326	59,191	-	-
B.CREDIT FINANCING....	-	-	161	33,578	1,980	953	763	410	37,685	40,399	22,427	17,973
C.INTL MIL.ED.TRNG....	-	107	717	1,380	52	56	47	47	1,582	2,396	-	-
D.TRAN-EXCESS STOCK...	-	479	1,322	4,847	-	-	-	-	4,847	6,374	-	-
E.OTHER GRANTS........	481	324	555	12,909	3,009	3,142	3,318	3,904	26,282	27,642	-	-
III.TOTAL ECON.& MIL....	12,963	28,698	43,355	218,654	16,625	14,488	13,792	14,688	278,248	358,386	45,078	51,089
LOANS..............	5,967	2,551	6,011	76,383	3,196	2,091	1,615	1,104	84,391	96,169	45,078	51,089
GRANTS.............	6,996	26,147	37,344	142,271	13,429	12,397	12,177	13,584	193,857	262,217	-	-
OTHER US LOANS..........	2,091	900	3,653	50,369	875	486	595	554	52,881	56,149	46,005	10,030
EX-IM BANK LOANS......	2,091	900	3,653	43,071	377	320	468	510	44,748	47,942	38,926	9,015
ALL OTHER.............	-	-	-	7,298	498	166	127	44	8,133	8,207	7,079	1,015

* LESS THAN $50,000.

@ SEE COMMENTS IN COUNTRY NOTES SECTION

** VALUES IN THESE COLUMNS ARE NET OF DEOBLIGATIONS. SEE GENERAL NOTES-REPORTING CONCEPTS

*** INCLUDES CAPITALIZED INTEREST ON PRIOR YEAR LOANS.

[a] INCLUDES PL 480 TITLE III - FOOD FOR DEVELOPMENT.

Source: Agency for International Development, U.S. Overseas Loans and Grants and Assistance from International Organizations. Obligations and Loan Authorizations, July 1, 1945-September 30, 1989. Corrected Version. P. 4.

COTTON: THE WORLD'S MOST IMPORTANT TEXTILE FIBER AND 4TH LARGEST U.S. CROP IN CASH RECEIPTS

Grown in 17 States. Texas and California Together Account For About Half The Nation's Total

Cotton is grown in 17 states from Florida to California. Texas and California together account for about half of the nation's production.

Cotton production in 1988, the year illustrated in the map on these pages, was up 5 percent from 1987 to 15.4 million bales—15.1 million bales of upland cotton and a record 334,000 bales of ELS (Extra Long Staple) cotton. Production for 1989 was estimated at 12.1 million bales, down from the previous year because of a 20 percent drop in acreage and slightly lower yields, according to economist Scott Sanford of USDA's Economic Research Service. Bad weather, especially in Texas and Oklahoma, was a factor.

About 98 percent of U.S. cotton is the "upland" type and the rest American Pima, an ELS type. Promotion in recent years of ELS cotton for use in upscale apparel and home furnishings increased demand substantially and caused a temporary 3-1 difference in prices. However, increased planting of ELS boosted supplies and brought prices back in line, Sanford says.

Cotton's cash receipts of $4.7 billion in 1988 ranked it fourth among the nation's crops and ninth among all farm commodities. (Corn, soybeans, and wheat were the crops with higher receipts.)

Cotton is the most important textile fiber in the world, accounting for about 67 percent of all fibers used. Cotton is grown in about 75 countries. During 1986-88, the United States produced about 20 percent of the world's cotton and used 10 percent.

Cotton has been a major cash crop and an important source of foreign exchange for the United States for nearly 200 years. It was a minor crop until 1793, when Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, which made it possible for cotton lint to be separated from the seeds about 100 times faster than previously. The cotton gin is credited with revolutionizing agriculture in the South and making cotton an important export commodity.

Between 1793 and 1813, U.S. cotton production increased from 10,000 bales to 125,000 annually. In 1850, nearly 90 percent of U.S. cotton was exported, with the earnings offsetting the costs of about two-thirds of all U.S. imports. Most of the lint was sold to textile mills in England.

Cotton production has rapidly expanded westward in recent decades. Between 1970 and 1985, cotton output in California and Arizona increased from a 16 percent share of the U.S. total to 31 percent. Lower production costs were a big reason for the shift, with insect pests less of a problem in the drier West. Irrigation is necessary in many areas, however, and the availability of water thus limits production areas.

Cotton needs at least 200 days between killing frosts and a minimum average summer temperature of 77 degrees. Other factors determining location of production include soil type, elevation, and relative returns among crops.

The top ten cotton producing states in 1987, ranked by total cash receipts, were Texas $980 million, California $970 million, Mississippi $532 million, Arizona $339 million, Louisiana $282 million, Arkansas $270 million, Tennessee $178 million, Alabama $109 million, Missouri $94 million, and Oklahoma $89 million.

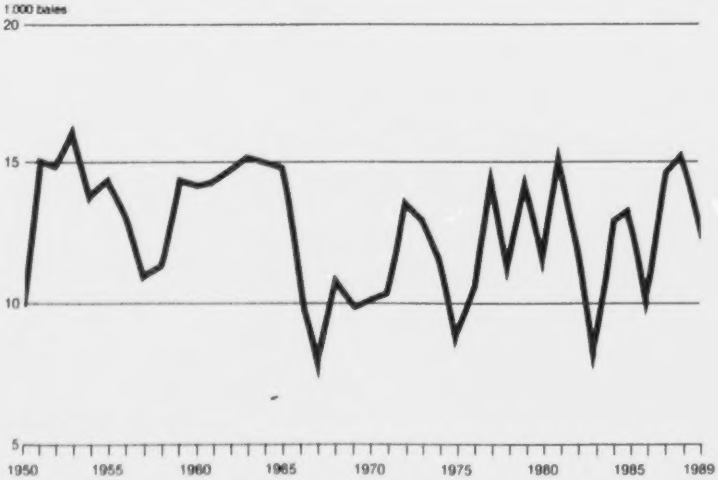
The other states with commercial production, in order, were Georgia, North Carolina, New Mexico, South Carolina, Florida, Virginia, and Kentucky.

U.S. exports of cotton are projected by USDA at 7.5 million bales for the 1989-90 marketing year, up 22 percent from the previous year. In 1980-82, U.S. exports accounted for about 30 percent of the world cotton trade. World production in 1989-90 is expected to total 80.6 million bales and world consumption 86 million bales.

Since 1980 the farm value of the U.S. cotton crop has not been enough to pay all costs of production, Sanford says. But government payments have made cotton production profitable overall.

—Martha Evans

Cotton Production, 1950-1989

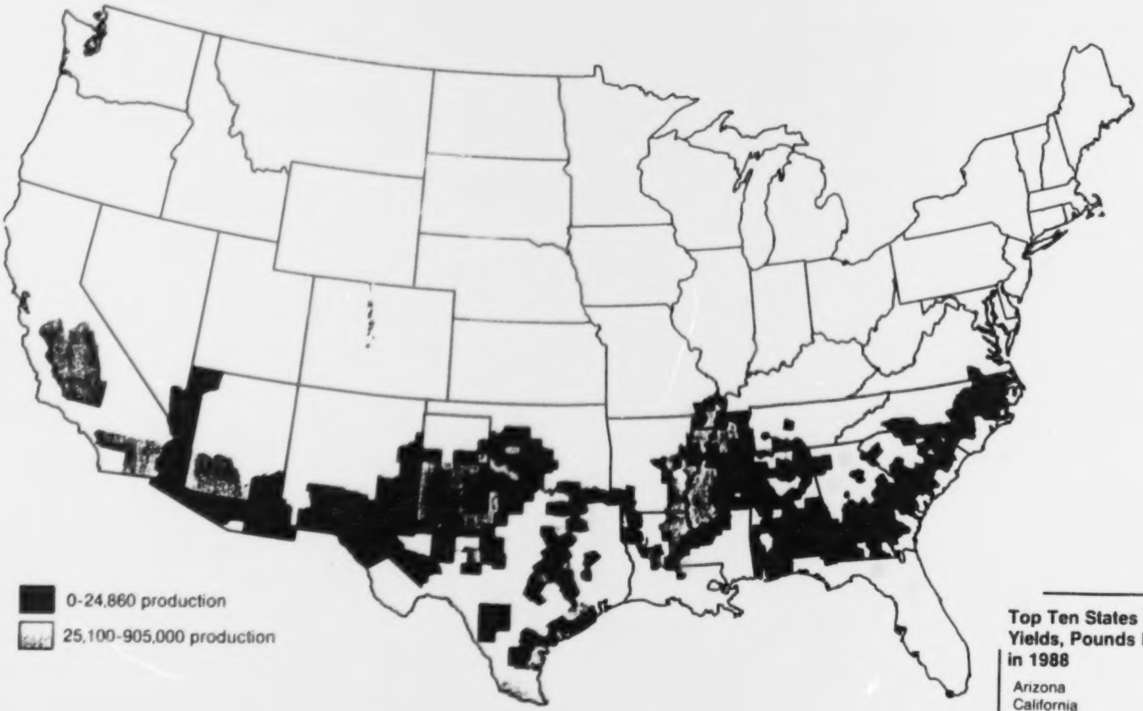


Data provided by National Agricultural Statistics Service, USDA

continued →

COTTON continued

U.S. Cotton Producing Counties

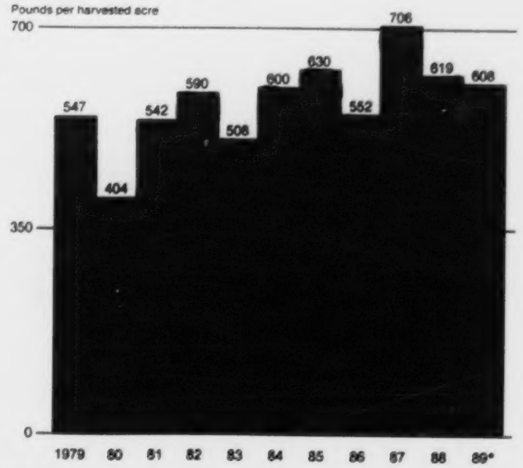


Top Ten States in Cotton Yields, Pounds Per Acre, in 1988

Arizona	1,113
California	1,015
Arkansas	742
Mississippi	736
Louisiana	705
New Mexico	694
Missouri	620
Florida	566
Georgia	564
Tennessee	529
U.S. Average	**619**

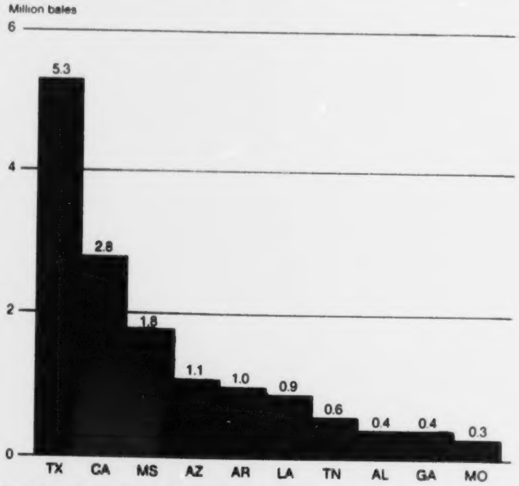
Source: National Agricultural Statistics Service

U.S. Cotton Yields, 1979-89



*Estimated
Source: National Agricultural Statistics Service, USDA.

Top Ten Cotton Producing States, 1988



Source: National Agricultural Statistics Service, USDA.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture.
Farmline, March 1990. Pp. 12-13.

A LISTING OF ALL MAJOR ARMS CONTROL AGREEMENTS CONCLUDED AFTER WORLD WAR II IN WHICH THE U.S. HAS BEEN A PARTICIPANT

-- Each date given represents the date protocol or agreement was signed. --

GENEVA PROTOCOL, June 17, 1925
Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or Other Gases, and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare

THE ANTARCTIC TREATY, December 1, 1959
Antarctic Treaty

"HOT LINE" AGREEEMENT, June 20, 1963
Memorandum of Understanding Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Regarding the Establishment of a Direct Communications Link (with Annex)

LIMITED TEST BAN TREATY, August 5, 1963
Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapon Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space and Under Water

OUTER SPACE TREATY, January 27, 1967
Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, Including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies

LATIN AMERICAN NUCLEAR-FREE ZONE TREATY, February 14, 1967
Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America

NON-PROLIFERATION TREATY, July 1, 1968
Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons

SEABED ARMS CONTROL TREATY, February 11, 1971
Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of Nuclear Weapons and Other Weapons of Mass Destruction on the Seabed and the Ocean Floor and in the Subsoil Thereof

"ACCIDENTS MEASURES" AGREEMENT, September 30, 1971
Agreement on Measures to Reduce the Risk of Outbreak of Nuclear War Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

"HOT LINE" MODERNIZATION AGREEMENT, September 30, 1971
Agreement Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on Measures to Improve the USA-USSR Direct Communications Link (With Annex, Supplementing and Modifying the Memorandum of Understanding With Annex, of June 20, 1963)

BIOLOGICAL WEAPONS CONVENTION, April 10, 1972
Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction

INCIDENTS AT SEA AGREEMENT, May 25, 1972
Agreement Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Prevention of Incidents On and Over the High Seas

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS (SALT I)
Narrative

ABM TREATY, May 26, 1972
Treaty Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Limitation of Anti-Ballistic Missile Systems

INTERIM AGREEMENT, May 26, 1972
Interim Agreement Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on Certain Measures With Respect to the Limitation of Strategic Offensive Arms

PREVENTION OF NUCLEAR WAR AGREEMENT, June 22, 1973
Agreement Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Prevention of Nuclear War

ABM PROTOCOL, July 3, 1974
Protocol to the Treaty Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Limitation of Anti-Ballistic Missile Systems

THRESHOLD TEST BAN TREATY, July 3, 1974
Treaty Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Limitation of Underground Nuclear Weapon Tests (and Protocol Thereto)

PNE TREATY, May 28, 1976
Treaty Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on Underground Nuclear Explosions for Peaceful Purposes (and Protocol Thereto)

ENVIRONMENTAL MODIFICATION CONVENTION, May 18, 1977
Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques

U.S.-IAEA SAFEGUARDS AGREEMENT, November 18, 1977
Agreement Between the United States of America and The International Atomic Energy Agency for the Application of Safeguards in the United States (and Protocol Thereto)

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS (SALT II)
Treaty Between the United States of America and The Union of Sovi Socialist Republics on the Limitation of Strategic Offensive Arms, June 18, 1979.

NUCLEAR MATERIAL CONVENTION, March 3, 1980
Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material

"HOT LINE" EXPANSION AGREEMENT, July 17, 1984
Agreement Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics To Expand the Direct Communications

CONFIDENCE- AND SECURITY-BUILDING MEASURES DOCUMENT, September 19, 1986
Document of the Stockholm Conference on Confidence- and Security-Building Measures and Disarmament in Europe Convened in Accordance With the Relevant Provisions of the Concluding Document of the Madrid Meeting of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe

NUCLEAR RISK REDUCTION CENTERS, September 15, 1987
Agreement Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Establishment of Nuclear Risk Reduction Centers (and Protocols Thereto)

INTERMIDIATE-RANGE NUCLEAR FORCES, December 8, 1987
Treaty Between the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on the Elimination of Their Intermediate-Range and Shorter-Range Missiles

BALLISTIC MISSILE LAUNCH NOTIFICATION AGREEMENT, May 31, 1988
Agreement Between the United States of America and The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on Notifications of Launches of Intercontinental Ballistic Missiles and Submarine-Launched Ballisti Missiles

Source: U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency. Arms Control and Disarmament Agreements: Texts and Histories of the Negotiations. 1990 Edition. Table of Contents.

WORLDQUIZ

(ANSWERS are on Page 34)

1. In which time zone does approximately one-half of the U.S. population lives? ____________

2. The State which has over 10% of the U.S. population: ____________

3. Which country is the U.S.'s largest total trade (exports plus imports) partner? ____________

4. How many times larger than one milion is one trillion? ____________

5. Is the population in America's Sunshine Belt (a) going up (b) going down (c) staying about the same? ____________

The five Great Lakes on the U.S.-Canada border are the largest group of fresh-water lakes in the world. (6-8)

6. Name the largest of the 5 ____________

7. What river connects the 5 Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean? ____________

8. The port city of Duluth is in which state? ____________

True or False: (9-14)

9. The value of U.S. merchandise imports currently exceeds the value of its exports. ____________

10. The value of U.S. agricultural exports currently exceeds the value of its agricultural imports. ____________

11. The Federal Government is currently spending about $100 billion a year more than it takes in. ____________

12. The debt of the Federal Government is more than $1 trillion. ____________

13. Recently, the U.S. imports each year over one third of the oil it uses. ____________

14. Approximately 4% of the world's population lives in the U.S. ____________

Identify: (15-20) →

15. (a) ____________

16. (b) ____________

17. (c) ____________

18. (d) ____________

19. (e) ____________

20. (f) ____________

21. Which country is on Germany's eastern border? ____________

22. What do Lithuania, Moldavia, and Azerbaijan have in common? ____________

23. Which country has the largest reserves of natural gas and produces the largest amount of crude oil? ____________

24. In Iran, the majority of that country's 55 million poeple belong to the ____________ branch of Islam.

25.26.27. Five of Canada's Provinces are Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, and Alberta. Name 3 of the remaining 5: ____________

In which country would you find each of the following? (28-42)

28. The Sandanistas ____________

29. Bonn ____________

30. The Wailing Wall ____________

31. Geneva ____________

32. Calcutta ____________

33. Lagos ____________

34. Apartheid ____________

35. Quebec City ____________

36. Tallinn ____________

37. Johannesburg ____________

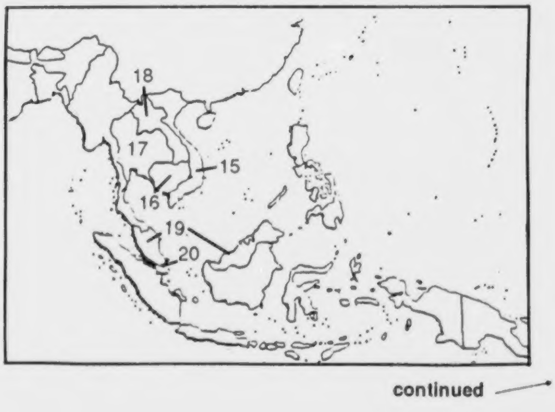
38. Home of the I.R.A. ____________

39. Mecca ____________

40. The Contras ____________

41. Montevideo ____________

42. Baghdad ____________



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WORLDQUIZ continued

Identify: (43-47)

43. (a) ______

44. (b) ______

45. (c) ______

46. (d) ______

47. (e) ______

48. Approximately what percent of the world's Gross National Product does the U.S. produce? (a) 5% (b) 10% (c) 25% (d) 40% ______

49. A city's infrastucture involves (a) tunnels, bridges, and highways (b) water supply (c) fuel supply (d) sanitation and health system (e) all of these ______

50. The Brenner Pass connects Austria and ______

51. How much of the world's primary energy is produced each year by the U.S.? Approximately (a) 20% (b) 5% (c) 54% (d) 35% ______

52.53. Name two of the four countries which border Switzerland ______

True-False: ((54-59)

54. On the Richter Scale, an earthquake that measures 4.0 is ten times as severe as one that measures 3.0. ____

55. China is larger in area than the U.S. (including Alaska). ______

56. Alaska is twice the size of Texas. ______

57. One of every six Americans lives in the Boston-Washington corridor. ______

58. The Kremlin is a building. ______

59. There are over 50 countries in Africa. ______

60.61.62. Name three of the seven states which border Kentucky: ______

63.64. Which are the two most populous countries of Latin America? ______

65,66. Of Africa? ______

What is the name of the body of water between: (67-71)

67. England and Denmark? ______

68. Saudi Arabia and Iran? ______

69. Sweden and Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania? ______

70. Vietnam and the Philippines? ______

71. Spain and Israel? ______

72.73. Which two states border Florida? ______

74.75.76.77.78. Name the five U.S. states washed by the Pacific Ocean. ______

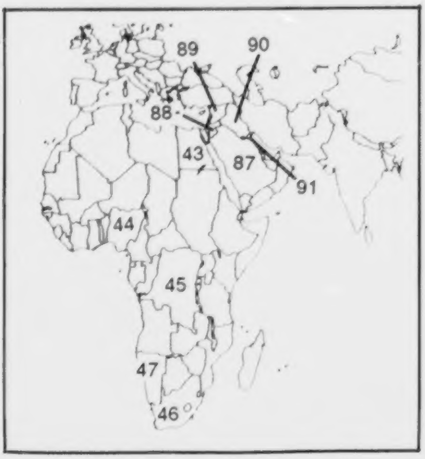
79.80.81. After CA, NY, and TX, name three of the next six most populous states. These nine states contain over 50% of the U.S. population. ______

82.83. What are the names of the two rivers which flow together at Pittsburgh to form the Ohio River? ______

84. In what direction does the Ohio River flow? ______

85. The Missouri? ______

86. The Mississippi? ______



Identify These Countries: (87-91)

87. (a) ______

88. (b) ______

89. (c) ______

90. (d) ______

91. (e) ______

92. One of the five pillars of Islam is pilgrimage, or *Hajj*, to the holy shrine (in Mecca), which is known as: ______

93. In what gereral direction do most of the major rivers of Germany flow? ______

94. Approximately how many poeple live in the U.S.? (a) 250 million (b) 90 million (c) 40 million (d) 145 million (e) 490 million ______

95. What is the name of the largest and most populous USSR Republic that Boris Yeltsin is president of? ______

96.97.98.99.100. Name 5 of the 12 countries which border the USSR. ______

THE SUPREME COURT IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Tao-tai Hsia and the Law Library staff

The following article is reprinted from CRS Review, September 1989, pages 26 & 27. (The Congress of the United States. Congressional Research Service.

There are few countries where the role of the court of last resort is as substantial as that of the U.S. Supreme Court.

Most of the nations of the world have an institution comparable in some respects to the U.S. Supreme Court. The attributes of those courts, however, vary enormously. In many countries, particularly in the Middle East, while there may be a single court which hears disputes arising under the constitution, neither the constitutional court nor any other tribunal has appellate authority over the other courts and is supreme only by virtue of the primacy of the law within its exclusive jurisdiction.

Even in those jurisdictions where the decisions of lower courts may be appealed to a single supreme court, the power to hear constitutional questions may be vested a separate constitutional court.

In civil law countries, where development of the law has traditionally been a matter of legislative modification rather than judicial expansion, and in countries where the law historically flowed from executive pronouncements, the decisions of the supreme court are less likely to have binding effect on other cases than in countries with a common law tradition like our own.

Great Britain

Even among the common law countries, there are distinctive features. In Great Britain the upper house of the legislative body, the House of Lords, sits at the apex of the court system. It is the final court of appeal for civil cases from Scotland and for civil and criminal cases from England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The body is composed of both "Law Lords" and "lay Lords," although only the former now vote in judicial matters. The Law Lords, or Lords of Appeal in Ordinary normally sit in panels of five. They must have been experienced jurists or practicioners before coming to the House, but the appeals before them are quasi-legislative in nature. They do not wear judicial robes or sit on an elevated bench, and even their judgments are technically considered speeches rather than opinions. Their determinations are, nevertheless, binding precedents for the lower courts.

Canada

A number of foreign supreme courts, particularly in countries with a common law tradition, do resemble the U.S. Supreme Court. The Supreme Court of Canada is one example. Created in 1875, it has served as the country's highest judicial body ever since appeals to the legislative Judicial Committee of the Privy Council were abolished for all cases arising after 1949.

The Chief Justice and eight other judges of the court are appointed by the Governor-General, acting upon the advice of the Prime Minister or the Minister of Justice. All justices must retire at age 75, and may be removed by resolution of the Senate and House of Commons.

The Supreme Court of Canada enjoys appellate jurisdiction over both Federal and provincial cases and, like the supreme courts of some of our States, may render advisory opinions at the behest of the executive.

India

The framework of the Supreme Court of India is similar. It consists of 11 justices who are appointed by the President, must retire at age 65, and are subject to removal upon the vote of each House of Parliament.

The Court may provide the President with advisory opinons and is vested with appellate authority which it exercises through many of the same series of writs found in American jurisprudence—habeas corpus, mandamus, prohibition, quo warranto, and certiorari.

Jurisdiction of Foreign Courts

Like the U.S. Supreme Court, the supreme courts of other countries often have limited original jurisdiction over cases that might be troublesome for the lower courts. The most common of these are cases which involve disputes between the national government and one of the states or provinces or between two or more of the states or prov-

continued →

Tao-tai Hsia is chief of the Far Eastern Law Division of the Law Library of Congress.

THE SUPREME COURT IN OTHER COUNTRIES *continued*

inces. Unlike the U.S. Supreme Court, several of the foreign supreme courts including those of South Korea, Belgium and Costa Rica, also exercise originial jurisdiction over criminal charges brought against cabinet officers or members of the judiciary.

American trial courts are often divided by subject, with branches for civil matters, criminal cases, domestic relations cases, real estate matters, probate, bankruptcy, juveniles, and so forth. Foreign judicial systems often follow this pattern in their supreme courts. Thus, members of Costa Rica's Supreme Court of Justice are divided into three chambers, one dealing with criminal cases, a second with family and probate matters, and a third with administrative and civil cases. The court considers constitutional questions as a whole. The Supreme Court of Taiwan is divided into a civil and a criminal division, with constitutional questions considered by the separate Council of Grand Justices.

In the countries of the world, the role of law and the role of the courts in governing differ greatly. In civil law countries, the case law plays little role in the development of the law and judicial opinions have little impact as precedent. In many parts of the Arab world, the concept of a supreme court is unknown. In other parts of the world, where the concept is more familiar, the potential effect of a supreme court is muted by specialization within the court, by the fact that appellate and constitutional jurisdiction are often separated, and by the appointment and tenure provisions which attend the court. In all, there are few countries where the role of the court of last resort is as substantial as the U.S. Supreme Court. ■

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1.Eastern 2.CA 3.Canada 4. 1,000 5.(a) 6.Lake Superior 7.St. Lawrence 8.Minnesota 9.T 10.T 11.T 12.T 13.T 14.T 15.Vietnam 16.Cambodia (Kampuchea) 17.Thailand 18.Laos 19.Malaysia 20.Singapore 21.Poland 22.They are all republics of the USSR. 23.USSR 24.Shiite, or Shi'a 25.Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, New Brunswick 28.Nicaragua 29.Germany 30.Israel 31.Switzerland 32.India 33.Nigeria 34.South Africa 35.Canada 36.USSR, Republic of Estonia 37.South Africa 38.Ireland 39.Saudi Arabia 40.Nicaragua 41.Uruguay 42.Iraq 43.Egypt 44.Nigeria 45.Zaire 46.South Africa 47.Namibia 48.(c) 49.(e) 50.Italy 51.(b) 52.53.Austria, France, Germany, Italy 54.T 55.T 56.T 57.T 58.F 59.T 60.61.62.WV, VA, TN, MD, IL, IN, OH. 63.64.Brazil and Mexico. 65.66.Nigeria and Egypt 67.North Sea 68.Persian Gulf, or Arabian Gulf 69.Baltic Sea 70.South China Sea 71.Mediterranean Sea 72.73.GA & AL 74.75.76.77.78.AK, CA, HI, OR, WA 79.80.81.FL, PA, IL, OH, MI, NJ 82.83.The Allegheny and the Monongahela 84.West (or southwest, or west by south) 85.Southeast 86.South 87.Saudi Arabia 88.Jordan 89.Syria 90.Iraq 91.Kuwait 92.The Kaaba 93.North 94.(a) 95.Russia (Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic) 96.97.98.99.100.Norway, Finland, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Turkey, Iran. Afghanistan, China, Mongolia, North Korea.

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September	**The American Family**	**February**	**The Far East**
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November	**The Developing World**	**April**	**World Product and Trade**
December	**U.S. and World Population**	**May**	**Federal Budget Priorities**
January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

How To Contact Congress: By mail/telegram/mailgram: Congressperson _______________, U.S. House of Representatives, Washington DC 20515. Senator __________________, U.S. Senate Office Building, Washington DC 20510. By Phone, Both House and Senate: (202) 224-3121. **How To Contact The White House**: By mail/telegram/mailgram: President George Bush, The White House, Washington DC 20500. By Phone: (202) 456-1414.

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A COMMENT ON THE LABEL "THE FAR EAST"

In addition to terms applied to all of Asia are names designating greater or lesser portions of the continent. The Far East is a rubric of indeterminate dimensions that has been widely employed to include many or all of the lands from China and Japan to India and Pakistan. Coming with vogue in the 16th and 17th centuries, when the fabled wealth of the Indies was for Portuguese merchant-explorers and their European sucessors literally far to the east, the term remained intellectually fashionable until modern times. But to other Westeners who did not approach Asia by sailing around the Cape of Good Hope and across the Indian Ocean the term Far East was more convenient than accurate. For Spanish conquistadores and traders, who made their way across the Pacific from ports on the west coast of the Americas, as well as for many Americans of the 19th and early 20th centuries, Far West might well have been a more appropriate expression. With the unprecedented revolution in the technology of transportation and communications following World War II, the term Far East lost much of its historical meaning and is less commonly resorted to by scholars and writers. And since the term embodies memories of the age of Western imperialism, many Asian peoples frown on its usage.

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In this treatment of the Far East, the following countries and political divisions are included:

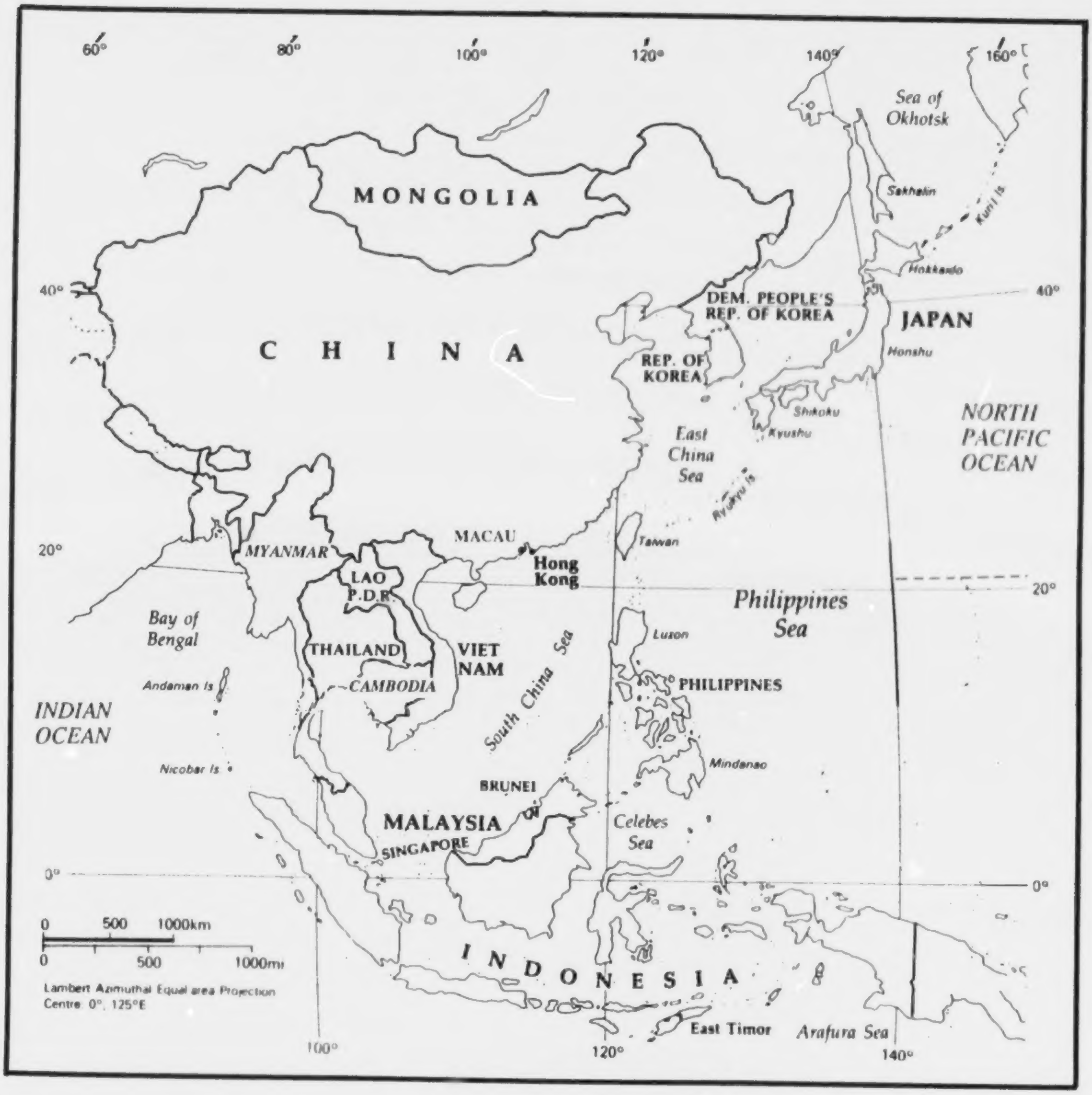
Brunei
Cambodia
China
East Timor
Hong Kong

Indonesia
Japan
Korea, North
Korea, South
Laos

Macau
Malaysia
Mongolia
Myanmar (Burma)
Philippines

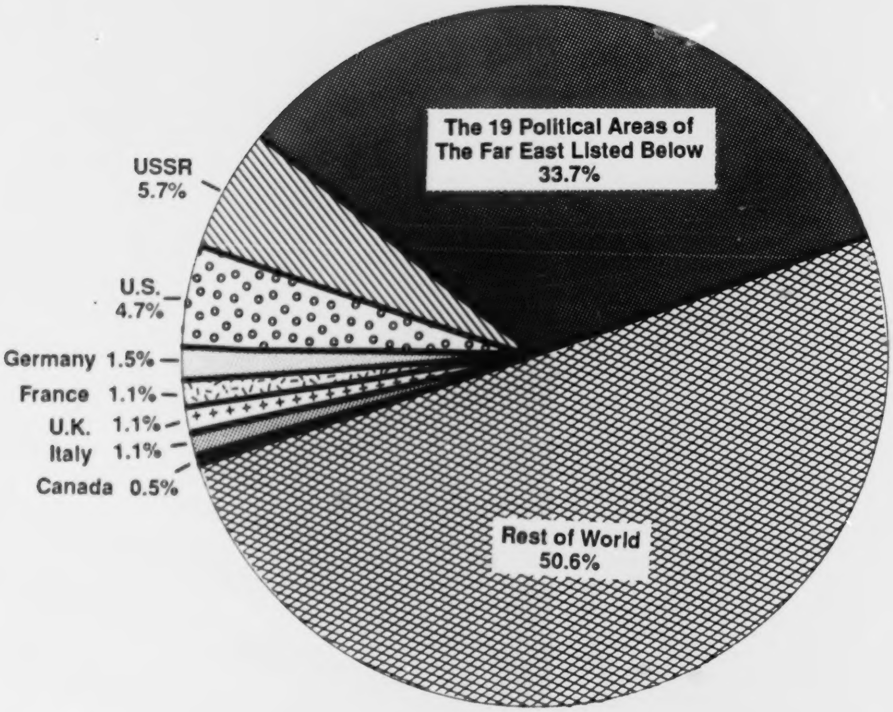
Singapore
Taiwan
Thailand
Vietnam

THE FAR EAST


60°
80°
100°
120°
140°
160°
Sea of Okhotsk
Sakhalin
Kuril Is
Hokkaido
MONGOLIA
40°
DEM. PEOPLE'S REP. OF KOREA
JAPAN
CHINA
REP. OF KOREA
Honshu
Shikoku
Kyushu
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
East China Sea
Ryukyu Is
Taiwan
20°
MYANMAR
MACAU
Hong Kong
LAO P.D.R.
Philippines Sea
Bay of Bengal
THAILAND
VIET NAM
Luzon
South China Sea
Andaman Is
CAMBODIA
PHILIPPINES
INDIAN OCEAN
Mindanao
Nicobar Is
BRUNEI
MALAYSIA
Celebes Sea
SINGAPORE
0°
0 500 1000km
0 500 1000mi
Lambert Azimuthal Equal area Projection
Centre: 0°, 125°E
INDONESIA
East Timor
Arafura Sea

Excerpted from Map No. 34352 United Nations, June 1987. Reprinted with permission. Place names of Myanmar and Cambodia have been substituted for names of Burma and Democratic Kampuchea.

ONE-THIRD OF THE WORLD'S POPULATION



Brunei	300,000
China	1,119,900,000
Cambodia	7,000,000
East Timor	700,000
Hong Kong	5,800,000
Indonesia	189,400,000
Japan	123,600,000
Korea, North	21,300,000
Korea, South	42,800,000
Laos	4,000,000
Macao	500,000
Malaysia	17,900,000
Mongolia	2,200,000
Myanmar	41,300,000
Philippines	66,100,000
Singapore	2,700,000
Taiwan	20,200,000
Thailand	55,700,000
Vietnam	70,200,000
Total	1,791,600,000
World	5,321,000,000
	Mid-1990

World Eagle chart. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1990 World Population Data Sheet.

DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS

	Crude Birth Rate	Crude Death Rate	Current Annual Rate of Natural Increase	Population "Doubling Time" Years (at Current Rate)	Infant Mortality Rate	Total Fertility Rate	Life Expectancy at Birth (Years)
Brunei	29	3	2.5	27	11	3.6	71
Cambodia	39	16	2.2	31	128	4.5	49
China	21	7	1.4	49	37	2.3	68
East Timor	44	22	2.2	31	166	5.4	43
Hong Kong	13	5	0.8	82	7.4	1.4	77
Indonesia	27	9	1.8	38	89	3.3	59
Japan	10	6	0.4	175	4.8	1.6	79
Korea, North	26	5	2.1	32	33	2.5	70
Korea, South	16	6	1.0	72	30	1.6	68
Laos	41	16	2.5	28	110	5.5	47
Macau	18	3	1.5	47	9	--	76
Malaysia	30	5	2.5	28	30	3.6	68
Mongolia	36	8	2.8	25	50	4.8	65
Myanmar	33	13	2.0	34	97	4.2	55
Philippines	33	7	2.6	27	48	4.3	64
Singapore	20	5	1.5	47	6.9	2.0	73
Taiwan	17	5	1.2	57	17	1.8	74
Thailand	22	7	1.5	45	39	2.6	66
Vietnam	33	8	2.5	28	50	4.2	66

POPULATION DOUBLING TIME

For a given geographical area, an annual growth rate of this % ...	will cause the population of that area to double in ...
0.5%	139 years
1.0	69
1.5	46
2.0	35
2.5	28
3.0	23
3.5	20
4.0	17

Birth and Death Rate: These rates are often referred to as "crude rates" since they do not take a population's age structure into account. Thus, crude rates in more developed countries (MDCs) are often higher than those in less developed countries (LDCs) because the MDCs have a larger proportion of older persons.

Rate of Natural Increase (RNI): Birth rate minus the death rate, implying the annual rate of population growth without accounting for net immigration or emigration.

Population "Doubling Time": The number of years in which a population would double assuming a **constant** rate of natural increase. This column is included to provide an indication of the potential growth associated with a particular RNI. It is not intended to forecast the doubling of any population; for a more realistic expectation of future growth or decline, see the columns on projected population in 2000 and 2020.

Infant Mortality Rate: The annual number of deaths to infants under age 1 year per 1,000 live births. Rates shown with one decimal place are those generally considered to be completely registered. Some differences in definition of an infant death affect comparability of rates from country to country and some "complete" rates are for year of registration rather than occurrence.

Total Fertility Rate (TFR): The average number of children a woman will bear in her lifetime assuming that current age-specific birth rates will remain constant throughout her childbearing years (usually considered to be ages 15-49).

Life Expectancy at Birth: The average number of years a newborn infant can be expected to live under *current* mortality levels.

World Eagle table. Data and descriptions from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1990 World Population Data Sheet.

CITIES IN THE FAR EAST WITH POPULATION OF MILLION OR MORE

CHINA (31 December 1987)
(Wade-Giles or other spelling in brackets)

Shanghai (Shang-hai)	7,220
Beijing (Pei-ching or Peking, the capital)	6,710
Tianjin (T'ien-chin or Tientsin).	5,540
Shenyang (Shen-yang or Mukden)	4,370
Wuhan (Wu-han or Hankow)	3,570
Guangzhou (Kuang-chou or Canton)	3,420
Chongqing (Ch'ung-ch'ing or Chungking)	2,890
Harbin (Ha-erh-pin)	2,710
Chengdu (Ch'eng-tu)	2,690
Xian (Hsi-an or Sian)	2,580
Nanjing (Nan-ching or Nanking)	2,390
Zibo (Tzu-po or Tzepo)	2,370
Dalian (Ta-lien or Dairen)	2,280
Jinan (Chi-nan or Tsinan)	2,140
Changchun (Ch'ang-ch'un)	2,000
Taiyuan (T'ai-yuan)	1,980
Zhengzhou (Cheng-chou or Chengchow)	1,580
Kunming (K'un-ming)	1,550
Tangshan (T'ang-shan)	1,440
Guiyang (Kuei-yang or Kweiyang)	1,430
Lanzhou (Lan-chou or Lanchow)	1,420
Qiqihar (Ch'i-ch'i-ha-erh or Tsitsihar)	1,330
Anshan (An-shan)	1,330
Qingdao (Ch'ing-tao or Tsingtao)	1,300
Fushun (F'u-shun)	1,290
Hangzhou (Hang-chou or Hangchow)	1,290
Nanchang (Nan-ch'ang)	1,260
Fuzhou (Fu-chou or Foochow)	1,240
Changsha (Chang-sha)	1,230
Shijiazhuang (Shih-chia-chuang or Shihkiachwang)	1,220
Jilin (Chi-lin or Kirin)	1,200
Baotau (Pao-t'ou or Paotow)	1,130
Huainan (Huai-nan or Hwainan)	1,110
Luoyang (Lo-yang)	1,090
Urumqi (Urumchi)	1,060
Ningbo (Ning-po)	1,050
Datong (Ta-t'ung or Tatung)	1,040
Handan (Han-tan)	1,030
Nanning (Nan-ning)	1,000

* Data refer to municipalities, which may include large rural areas as well as an urban centre. The listed towns comprise those with a total population of more than 1,000,000 and a non-agricultural population of more than 500,000.

HONG KONG

Victoria	approx. 1,000,000

INDONESIA (1980 Census)

Jakarta	6,503,449
Surabaya	2,027,913
Bandung	1,462,637
Medan	1,378,955
Semarang	1,026,671

JAPAN (at 31 March 1988)

Tokyo	8,155,781
Yokohama	3,121,601
Osaka	2,543,520
Nagoya	2,099,564
Sapporo	1,582,073
Kobe	1,426,838
Kyoto	1,419,390
Fukuoka	1,157,111
Kawasaki	1,114,173
Hiroshina	1,042,629
Kitakyushu	1,035,053

KOREA, NORTH (1986, est'd.)

Pyongyang	2,000,000

KOREA, SOUTH (at 1985 Census)

Seoul	9,639,110
Pusan	3,514,798
Taegu	2,029,853
Inchon	1,386,911

MYANMAR (census of 31 March 1983)

Yangon (Rangoon)	2,458,712

PHILIPPINES (1980 Census)

Manila	1,630,485
Quezon City	1,165,865

SINGAPORE (1978 est.)

Singapore City	2,334,400[a]

TAIWAN (est'd at 31 December 1988)

Taipei	2,681,857
Kaohsiung	1,362,086

THAILAND (est'd at 30 June 1989)

Bangkok Metropolis	5,845,152

VIETNAM (prelim. census figures, 1 April 1989)

Ho Chi Minh City	3,169,135
Hanoi	1,088,862

[a] 1990 World Almanac and Book of Facts, p. 750.

World Eagle table. Data from The Europa World Year Book 1990.

ETHNIC DIVISIONS AND RELIGIONS

BRUNEI

Ethnic divisions: 64% Malay, 20% Chinese, 16% other

Religion: 60% Muslim (official); 8% Christian; 32% Buddhist and indigenous beliefs

CAMBODIA

Ethnic divisions: 90% Khmer (Cambodian), 5% Chinese, 5% other minorities

Religion: 95% Theravada Buddhism, 5% other

CHINA

Ethnic divisions: 93.3% Han Chinese; 6.7% Zhuang, Uygur, Hui, Yi, Tibetan, Miao, Manchu, Mongol, Buyi, Korean, and other nationalities

Religion: officially atheist, but traditionally pragmatic and eclectic; most important elements of religion are Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism; about 2-3% Muslim, 1% Christian

EAST TIMOR

HONG KONG

Ethnic divisions: 98% Chinese, 2% other

Religion: 90% eclectic mixture of local religions, 10% Christian

INDONESIA

Ethnic divisions: majority of Malay stock comprising 45.0% Javanese, 14.0% Sundanese, 7.5% Madurese, 7.5% coastal Malays, 26.0% other

Religion: 88% Muslim, 6% Protestant, 3% Roman Catholic, 2% Hindu, 1% other

JAPAN

Ethnic divisions: 99.4% Japanese, 0.6% other (mostly Korean)

Religion: most Japanese observe both Shinto and Buddhist rites; about 16% belong to other faiths, including 0.8% Christian

KOREA, NORTH

Ethnic divisions: racially homogeneous

Religion: Buddhism and Confucianism; religious activities now almost nonexistent

KOREA, SOUTH

Ethnic divisions: homogeneous; small Chinese minority (about 20,000)

Religion: strong Confucian tradition; vigorous Christian minority (28% of the total population); Buddhism; pervasive folk religion (Shamanism); Chondokyo (religion of the heavenly way), eclectic religion with nationalist overtones founded in 19th century, claims about 1.5 million adherents

LAOS

Ethnic divisions: 50% Lao, 15% Phoutheung (Kha), 20% tribal Thai, 15% Meo, Hmong, Yao, and other

Religion: 85% Buddhist, 15% animist and other

MACAU

Ethnic divisions: 95% Chinese, 3% Portuguese, 2% other

Religion: mainly Buddhist; 17,000 Roman Catholics, of whom about half are Chinese

MALAYSIA

Ethnic divisions: 59% Malay and other indigenous, 32% Chinese, 9% Indian

Religion: Peninsular Malaysia—Malays nearly all Muslim, Chinese predominantly Buddhists, Indians predominantly Hindu; Sabah—38% Muslim, 17% Christian, 45% other; Sarawak—35% tribal religion, 24% Buddhist and Confucianist, 20% Muslim, 16% Christian, 5% other

MONGOLIA

Ethnic divisions: 90% Mongol, 4% Kazakh, 2% Chinese, 2% Russian, 2% other

Religion: predominantly Tibetan Buddhist, about 4% Muslim, limited religious activity because of Communist regime

MYANMAR (BURMA)

Ethnic divisions: 68% Burman, 9% Shan, 7% Karen, 4% Rakhine, 3% Chinese, 2% Mon, 2% Indian, 5% other

Religion: 85% Buddhist, 15% animist beliefs, Muslim, Christian, or other

PHILIPPINES

Ethnic divisions: 91.5% Christian Malay, 4% Muslim Malay, 1.5% Chinese, 3% other

Religion: 83% Roman Catholic, 9% Protestant, 5% Muslim, 3% Buddhist and other

SINGAPORE

Ethnic divisions: 76.4% Chinese, 14.9% Malay, 6.4% Indian, 2.3% other

Religion: majority of Chinese are Buddhists or atheists; Malays nearly all Muslim (minorities include Christians, Hindus, Sikhs, Taoists, Confucianists)

TAIWAN

Ethnic divisions: 84% Taiwanese, 14% mainland Chinese, 2% aborigine

Religion: 93% mixture of Buddhist, Confucian, and Taoist; 4.5% Christian; 2.5% other

THAILAND

Ethnic divisions: 75% Thai, 14% Chinese, 11% other

Religion: 95.5% Buddhist, 4% Muslim, 0.5% other

VIETNAM

Ethnic divisions: 85-90% predominantly Vietnamese; 3% Chinese; ethnic minorities include Muong, Thai, Meo, Khmer, Man, Cham; other mountain tribes

Religion: Buddhist, Confucian, Taoist, Roman Catholic, indigenous beliefs, Islamic, Protestant

Data from Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990.

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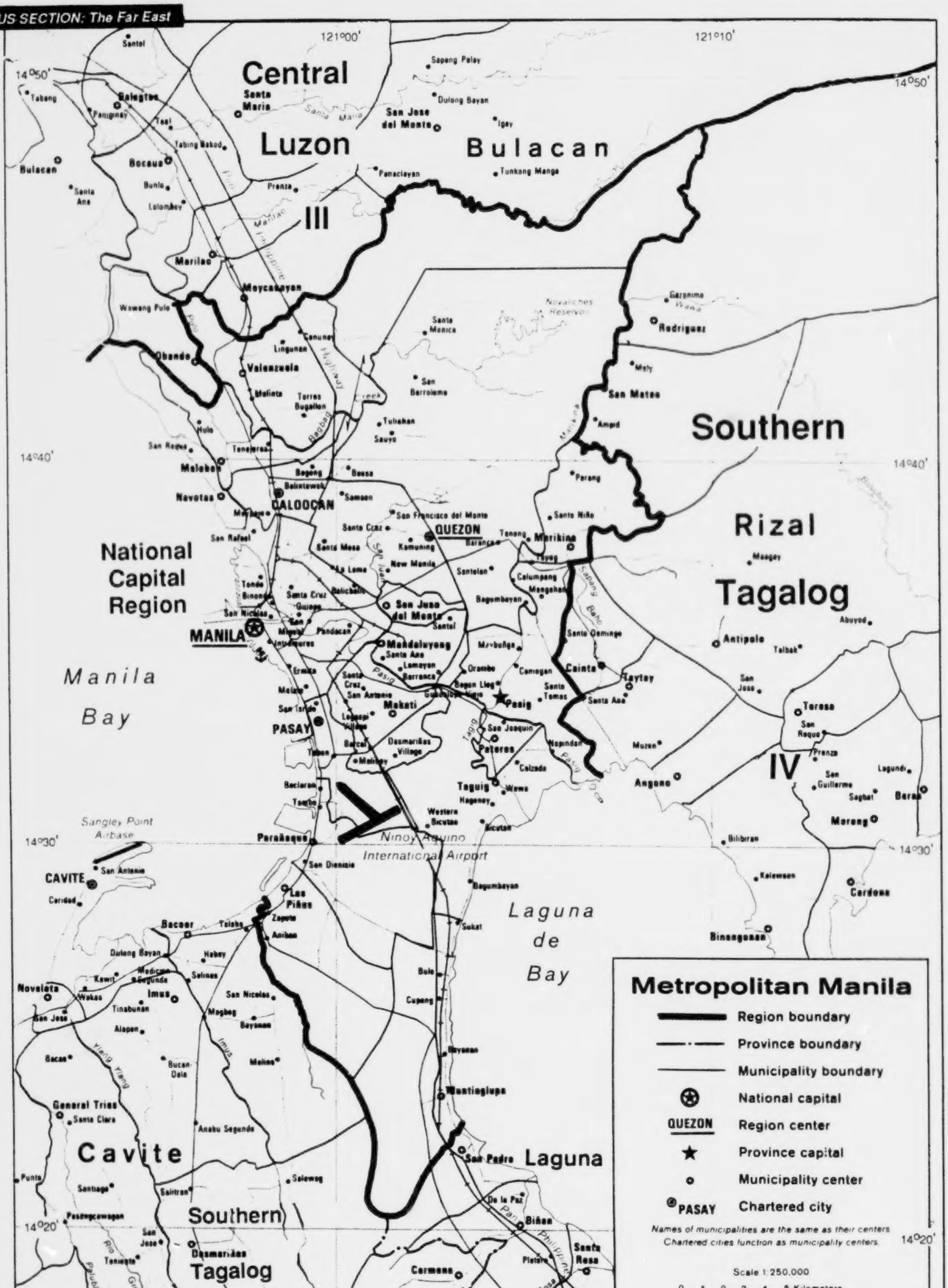
Central Luzon III
Bulacan
National Capital Region
MANILA
QUEZON
CALOOCAN
PASAY
Manila Bay
Southern Rizal Tagalog IV
Laguna de Bay
Laguna
Cavite
CAVITE
Southern Tagalog IV
TRECE MARTIRES
Ninoy Aquino International Airport
Sangley Point Airbase
Novaliches Reservoir
Makati
Pasig
Marikina
Mandaluyong
San Juan del Monte
Parañaque
Las Piñas
Muntinglupa
Taguig
Pateros
Valenzuela
Malabon
Navotas
Meycauayan
Marilao
Obando
San Mateo
Rodriguez
Antipolo
Cainta
Taytay
Angono
Binangonan
Cardona
Morong
Baras
Teresa
Bacoor
Imus
Kawit
Noveleta
General Trias
Dasmariñas
Carmona
San Pedro
Biñan
Santa Rosa
Santa Maria
San Jose del Monte
Bocaue
Bulacan
14°50'
14°40'
14°30'
14°20'
121°00'
121°10'
Metropolitan Manila
Region boundary
Province boundary
Municipality boundary
National capital
QUEZON Region center
Province capital
Municipality center
PASAY Chartered city
Names of municipalities are the same as their centers.
Chartered cities function as municipality centers.
Scale 1:250,000
0 1 2 3 4 5 Kilometers
0 1 2 3 4 5 Miles
801521 (E00310) 5-90

Source: U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, May 1990.

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PER CAPITA GNP/GDP, NATURAL RESOURCES, INDUSTRIES, AND AGRICULTURE

BRUNEI

GDP: US$9,600 per capita

Natural resources: crude oil, natural gas, timber

Industries: petroleum, liquefied natural gas, construction

Agriculture: imports about 80% of its food needs; principal crops and livestock include rice, cassava, bananas, buffaloes, and pigs

CAMBODIA

GDP: US$130 per capita

Natural resources: timber, gemstones, some iron ore, manganese, phosphates, hydropower potential

Industries: rice milling, fishing, wood and wood products, rubber, cement, gem mining

Agriculture: mainly subsistence farming except for rubber plantations; main crops—rice, rubber, corn; food shortages—rice, meat, vegetables, dairy products, sugar, flour

CHINA

GNP: NA

Natural resources: coal, iron ore, crude oil, mercury, tin, tungsten, antimony, manganese, molybdenum, vanadium, magnetite, aluminum, lead, zinc, uranium, world's largest hydropower potential

Industries: iron, steel, coal, machine building, armaments, textiles, petroleum

Agriculture: accounts for 26% of GNP; among the world's largest producers of rice, potatoes, sorghum, peanuts, tea, millet, barley, and pork; commercial crops include cotton, other fibers, and oilseeds; produces variety of livestock products; basically self-sufficient in food; fish catch of 8 million metric tons in 1986

EAST TIMOR

--

HONG KONG

GDP: US$10,000 per capita

Natural resources: outstanding deepwater harbor, feldspar

Industries: textiles, clothing, tourism, electronics, plastics, toys, watches, clocks

Agriculture: minor role in the economy; rice, vegetables, dairy products; less than 20% self-sufficient; shortages of rice, wheat, water

INDONESIA

GNP: US$430 per capita

Natural resources: crude oil, tin, natural gas, nickel, timber, bauxite, copper, fertile soils, coal, gold, silver

Industries: petroleum, textiles, mining, cement, chemical fertilizer production, timber, food, rubber

Agriculture: subsistence food production; small-holder and plantation production for export; rice, cassava, peanuts, rubber, cocoa, coffee, copra, other tropical products

JAPAN

GNP: US$15,600 per capita

Natural resources: negligible mineral resources, fish

Industries: metallurgy, engineering, electrical and electronic, textiles, chemicals, automobiles, fishing

Agriculture: accounts for 3% of GNP; highly subsidized and protected sector, with crop yields among highest in world; principal crops—rice, sugar beets, vegetables, fruit; animal products include pork, poultry, dairy and eggs; about 50% self-sufficient in food production; shortages of wheat, corn, soybeans; world's largest fish catch of 11.8 million metric tons in 1987

KOREA, NORTH

GNP: US$1,240 per capita

Natural resources: coal, lead, tungsten, zinc, graphite, magnesite, iron ore, copper, gold, pyrites, salt, fluorspar, hydropower

Industries: machine building, military products, electric power, chemicals, mining, metallurgy, textiles, food processing

Agriculture: accounts for about 25% of GNP and 36% of work force; principal crops—rice, corn, potatoes, soybeans, pulses; livestock and livestock products—cattle, hogs, pork, eggs; not self-sufficient in grain; fish catch estimated at 1.7 million metric tons in 1987

KOREA, SOUTH

GNP: US$4,600 per capita

Natural resources: coal, tungsten, graphite, molybdenum, lead, hydropower

Industries: textiles, clothing, footwear, food processing, chemicals, steel, electronics, automobile production, ship building

Agriculture: accounts for 11% of GNP and employs 21% of work force (including fishing and forestry); principal crops—rice, root crops, barley, vegetables, fruit; livestock and livestock products—cattle, hogs, chickens, milk, eggs; self-sufficient in food, except for wheat; fish catch of 2.9 million metric tons, seventh-largest in world

LAOS

GDP: US$150 per capita

Natural resources: timber, hydropower, gypsum, tin, gold, gemstones

Industries: tin mining, timber, electric power, agricultural processing

Agriculture: accounts for 60% of GDP and employs most of the work force; subsistence farming predominates; normally self-sufficient; principal crops—rice (80% of cultivated land), potatoes, vegetables, coffee, sugarcane, cotton

MACAU

GDP: US$6,300 per capita

Natural resources: negligible

Industries: clothing, textiles, toys, plastic products, furniture, tourism

Agriculture: rice, vegetables; food shortages—rice, vegetables, meat; depends mostly on imports for food requirements

MALAYSIA

GDP: US$2,270 per capita

Natural resources: tin, crude oil, timber, copper, iron ore, natural gas, bauxite

Industries: Peninsular Malaysia—rubber and oil palm processing and manufacturing, light manufacturing industry, electronics, tin mining and smelting, logging and processing timber; Sabah—logging, petroleum production; Sarawak—agriculture processing, petroleum production and refining, logging

Agriculture: Peninsular Malaysia—natural rubber, palm oil, rice; Sabah—mainly subsistence; main crops—rubber, timber, coconut, rice; Sarawak—main crops—rubber, timber, pepper; there is a deficit of rice in all areas; fish catch of 608,000 metric tons in 1987

MONGOLIA

GDP: US$880 per capita (1985 est.)

Natural resources: coal, copper, molybdenum, tungsten, phosphates, tin, nickel, zinc, wolfram, fluorspar, gold

Industries: processing of animal products, building materials, food and beverage, mining (particularly coal)

Data from Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990.

continued

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PER CAPITA GNP/GDP, NATURAL RESOURCES, INDUSTRIES, AND AGRICULTURE continued

MONGOLIA continued

Agriculture: accounts for 90% of exports and provides livelihood for about 50% of the population; livestock raising predominates (sheep, goats, horses); crops—wheat, barley, potatoes, forage

MYANMAR (BURMA)

GDP: US$280 per capita

Natural resources: crude oil, timber, tin, antimony, zinc, copper, tungsten, lead, coal, some marble, limestone, precious stones, natural gas

Industries: agricultural processing; textiles and footwear; wood and wood products; petroleum refining; mining of copper, tin, tungsten, iron; construction materials; pharmaceuticals; fertilizer

Agriculture: accounts for about 40% of GDP (including fish and forestry); self-sufficient in food; principal crops—paddy rice, corn, oilseed, sugarcane, pulses; world's largest stand of hardwood trees; rice and teak account for 55% of export revenues; 1985 fish catch of 644 million metric tons

PHILIPPINES

GNP: US$625 per capita

Natural resources: timber, crude oil, nickel, cobalt, silver, gold, salt, copper

Industries: textiles, pharmaceuticals, chemicals, wood products, food processing, electronics assembly, petroleum refining, fishing

Agriculture: accounts for about one-third of GNP and 50% of labor force; major crops—rice, coconut, corn, sugarcane, bananas, pineapple, mango; animal products—pork, eggs, beef; net exporter of farm products; fish catch of 2 million metric tons annually

SINGAPORE

GDP: US$10,300 per capita

Natural resources: fish, deepwater ports

Industries: petroleum refining, electronics, oil drilling equipment, rubber processing and rubber products, processed food and beverages, ship repair, entrepôt trade, financial services, biotechnology

Agriculture: occupies a position of minor importance in the economy; self-sufficient in poultry and eggs; must import much of other food; major crops—rubber, copra, fruit, vegetables

TAIWAN

GNP: US$6,000 per capita

Natural resources: small deposits of coal, natural gas, limestone, marble, and asbestos

Industries: textiles, clothing, chemicals, electronics, food processing, plywood, sugar milling, cement, shipbuilding, petroleum

Agriculture: accounts for 6% of GNP and 20% of labor force (includes part-time farmers); heavily subsidized sector; major crops—rice, sugarcane, sweet potatoes, fruits, vegetables; livestock—hogs, poultry, beef, milk, cattle; not self-sufficient in wheat, soybeans, corn; fish catch expanding, 1.1 million metric tons in (1987)

THAILAND

GNP: US$1,160 per capita

Natural resources: tin, rubber, natural gas, tungsten, tantalum, timber, lead, fish, gypsum, lignite, fluorite

Industries: tourism is the largest source of foreign exchange; textiles and garments, agricultural processing, beverages, tobacco, cement, other light manufacturing, such as jewelry; electric appliances and components, integrated circuits, furniture, plastics; world's second-largest tungsten producer and third-largest tin producer

Agriculture: accounts for 16% of GNP and 73% of labor force; leading producer and exporter of rice and cassava (tapioca); other crops—rubber, corn, sugarcane, coconuts, soybeans; except for wheat, self-sufficient in food; fish catch of 2.2 million tons (1987)

VIETNAM

GNP: US$215 per capita

Natural resources: phosphates, coal, manganese, bauxite, chromate, offshore oil deposits, forests

Industries: food processing, textiles, machine building, mining, cement, chemical fertilizer, glass, tires, oil, fishing

Agriculture: accounts for half of GNP; paddy rice, corn, potatoes make up 50% of farm output; commercial crops (rubber, soybeans, coffee, tea, bananas) and animal products other 50%; not self-sufficient in food staple rice; fish catch of 900,000 metric tons (1988 est.)

Data from Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990.

A STRONG ROLE IN TRADE WITH THE U.S.

In 1989, Six of the Top Thirteen Partners in Total[1] U.S. Merchandise Trade Were Countries of "The Far East"

[1] All Goods That Crossed Our Borders, Exports Plus Imports

						Others of "The Far East" Within Top 30		
1.	Canada	$166,762,000,000	8.	France	$24,593,000,000	22.	**MALAYSIA**	$7,614,000,000
2.	**JAPAN**	138,046,000,000	9.	Italy	19,148,000,000	23.	**THAILAND**	6,668,000,000
3.	Mexico	52,144,000,000	10.	**CHINA**	17,745,000,000	27.	**PHILIPPINES**	5,270,000,000
4.	Germany, W.	41,695,000,000	11.	**SINGAPORE**	16,347,000,000	29.	**INDONESIA**	4,775,000,000
5.	United Kingdom	39,156,000,000	12.	Netherlands	16,174,000,000			
6.	**TAIWAN**	35,647,000,000	13.	**HONG KONG**	16,014,000,000			
7.	**KOREA, SOUTH**	33,195,000,000						

In 1989, Six of The Top Fifteen Purchasers of U.S. Merchandise Exports Were Countries of "The Far East"

						Others of "The Far East" Within Top 30		
1.	Canada	$78,809,000,000	9.	**TAIWAN**	$11,335,000,000	23.	**MALAYSIA**	$2,870,000,000
2.	**JAPAN**	44,494,000,000	10.	Belg/Lux	8,522,000,000	28.	**THAILAND**	2,288,000,000
3.	Mexico	24,982,000,000	11.	Australia	8,331,000,000	29.	**PHILIPPINES**	2,202,000,000
4.	United Kingdom	20,837,000,000	12.	**SINGAPORE**	7,344,000,000	35.	**INDONESIA**	1,247,000,000
5.	Germany, W.	16,862,000,000	13.	Italy	7,215,000,000			
6.	**KOREA, SOUTH**	13,459,000,000	14.	**HONG KONG**	6,291,000,000			
7.	France	11,579,000,000	15.	**CHINA**	5,755,000,000			
8.	Netherlands	11,364,000,000						

In 1989, Six of The Top Twelve Suppliers of U.S. Merchandise Imports Were Countries of "the Far East"

						Others of "The Far East" Within Top 30		
1.	**JAPAN**	$93,553,000,000	7.	United Kingdom	$18,319,000,000	19.	**MALAYSIA**	$4,744,000,000
2.	Canada	87,953,000,000	8.	France	13,014,000,000	22.	**THAILAND**	4,379,000,000
3.	Mexico	27,162,000,000	9.	**CHINA**	11,990,000,000	24.	**INDONESIA**	3,529,000,000
4.	Germany, W.	24,833,000,000	10.	Italy	11,933,000,000	25.	**PHILIPPINES**	3,068,000,000
5.	**TAIWAN**	24,313,000,000	11.	**HONG KONG**	9,722,000,000			
6.	**KOREA, SOUTH**	19,737,000,000	12.	**SINGAPORE**	9,003,000,000			

World Eagle tables. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights 1989. Released September 1990. Pp. 46-48.

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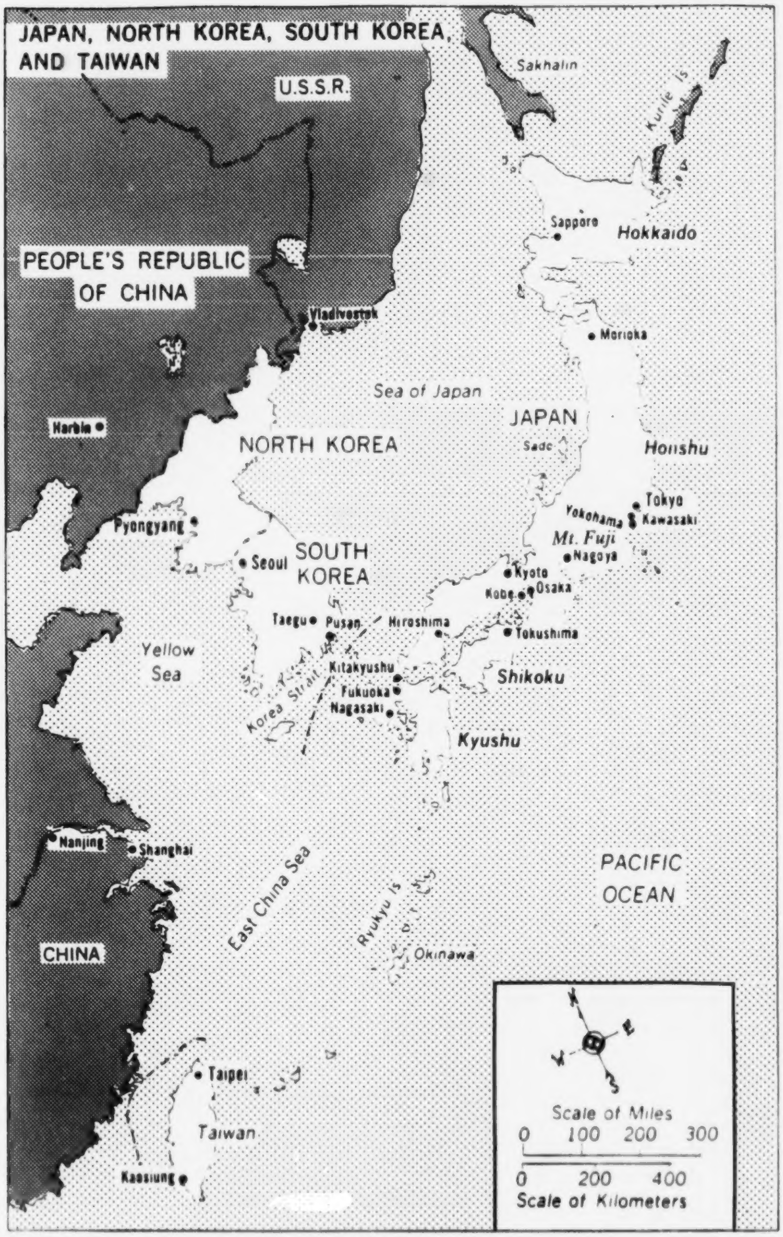
JAPAN, NORTH KOREA, SOUTH KOREA, AND TAIWAN


JAPAN, NORTH KOREA, SOUTH KOREA, AND TAIWAN
U.S.S.R.
Sakhalin
Kurile Is.
Sapporo
Hokkaido
PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA
Vladivostok
Morioka
Sea of Japan
JAPAN
Harbin
NORTH KOREA
Sado
Honshu
Tokyo
Yokohama
Kawasaki
Mt. Fuji
Nagoya
Pyongyang
Seoul
SOUTH KOREA
Kyoto
Kobe
Osaka
Taegu
Pusan
Hiroshima
Tokushima
Yellow Sea
Kitakyushu
Korea Strait
Fukuoka
Nagasaki
Shikoku
Kyushu
Nanjing
Shanghai
PACIFIC OCEAN
East China Sea
Ryukyu Is.
Okinawa
CHINA
N
E
S
W
Taipei
Taiwan
Kaosiung
Scale of Miles
0
100
200
300
0
200
400
Scale of Kilometers

Not a World Eagle map. We believe it came to us from the New York offices of the Consulate General of Japan. Reprinted here from our ASIA TODAY An Atlas of Reproducible Pages, 1991 Revised Edition.

CHANGES IN THE AMERICAN DIET

The American diet has changed quite a bit over the last two decades. Beef consumption, for example, fell almost 7 percent between 1966-68 and 1986-88, while chicken rose almost 72 percent, turkey 80 percent, and fish and shellfish more than 38 percent *(table 1)*. Egg use has also declined, while cheese has increased steadily. Fresh fruits and vegetables reached record levels in 1983, with fresh broccoli one of the biggest gainers, increasing over 940 percent between 1966-68 and 1986-88.

A variety of factors are responsible for the changes in U.S. consumption patterns, including diet and health concerns and increases in real (adjusted for inflation) disposable income. New products, particularly more convenient ones, have also contributed to shifts in consumption along with an aging population, advertising campaigns, smaller households, more two-earner households, more single-person households, and an increasing proportion of ethnic minorities in the U.S. population...

Table 1. Consumption Statistics Show Twenty Years of Change

Item	1966-68	1971-73	1976-78	1981-83	1986-88	1966-68 to 1986-88	1976-78 to 1986-88
	Pounds per capita[1]					*Percent change*[2]	
Some Gainers...							
Fresh broccoli	0.3	0.7	1.0	1.9	3.5	940.4	231.8
Low-calorie sweeteners[3]	6.9	5.1	6.5	10.2	19.2	179.1	193.2
Fresh cauliflower	0.9	0.7	0.9	1.5	2.5	179.7	174.1
Fresh grapes	3.5	2.2	2.9	4.6	6.8	91.2	134.8
Rice	na	7.2	6.7	10.8	13.1	na	95.1
Yogurt	0.5	1.3	2.4	2.8	4.5	846.1	89.4
Fresh carrots	6.6	6.3	5.6	7.1	9.9	50.0	77.0
Frozen broccoli	na	1.0	1.2	1.5	2.1	na	67.6
Turkey[4]	6.5	6.8	7.2	8.6	11.7	80.1	62.7
Cheese (excl. cottage)	10.1	12.8	16.1	19.5	23.5	133.5	46.0
Lowfat milk[5,6]	3.1	5.4	8.1	9.7	11.6	276.2	43.0
Chicken[4]	24.9	28.0	30.5	36.2	42.8	71.7	40.2
Cream[7]	5.8	4.8	5.0	5.5	7.1	22.7	42.4
Fresh tomatoes	10.4	10.2	10.8	11.4	14.7	41.9	36.2
Fresh onions	11.2	12.0	12.6	13.8	16.3	46.4	29.3
Salad and cooking oils	13.0	16.7	19.6	22.4	25.0	92.8	27.8
Fresh bananas	18.4	18.0	19.6	21.7	24.9	35.7	27.5
Skim milk[5]	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.7	34.9	24.7
Soft drinks[5]	18.6	22.4	25.4	27.1	31.4	68.3	23.2
Shortening	16.1	17.1	17.6	18.5	21.6	34.2	22.8
Frozen corn	na	5.6	6.5	6.2	7.9	na	21.8
Wine[5,8]	1.7	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.4	96.7	19.0
Fish and shellfish[4]	10.9	12.2	13.0	12.6	15.0	8.2	15.7
Pasta[9]	6.3	8.5	10.3	10.4	11.9	88.3	15.7
Fresh apples	15.4	15.4	16.5	17.1	19.0	23.8	15.3
Breakfast cereals	9.9	10.7	12.2	12.0	13.5	37.2	11.2
Orange juice[5]	2.7	3.7	4.4	4.5	4.9	83.1	10.1
Wheat flour[10]	106.3	103.8	109.5	110.4	119.3	12.2	8.9
Frozen potatoes	na	14.6	20.8	19.3	22.6	na	8.8
Butter	5.7	5.0	4.3	4.5	4.6	-20.3	5.6
Iceberg lettuce	19.9	21.1	23.5	23.9	24.7	24.5	5.5
Caloric sweeteners[11]	116.2	124.9	125.5	124.0	131.5	13.2	4.6
Fresh potatoes	na	53.2	46.6	45.5	48.8	na	4.7
Some Losers...							
Veal[4]	2.9	1.6	2.4	1.4	1.3	-53.8	-46.1
Whole milk[5]	27.5	24.0	19.5	15.6	12.9	-53.1	-33.8
Canned green peas	na	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.0	na	-32.8
Canned peaches	na	5.0	4.6	3.4	3.3	na	-27.8
Distilled spirits[5,8]	2.8	3.1	3.1	2.8	2.3	-17.6	-25.2
Nonfat dry milk	5.7	5.0	3.3	2.2	2.5	-55.8	-23.9
Canned corn	na	14.8	13.5	11.7	10.8	na	-19.6
Beef[4]	75.4	78.5	85.8	73.0	70.5	-6.6	-17.8
Coffee[5]	36.2	33.0	28.1	26.1	26.0	-28.2	-7.5
Lamb[4]	2.5	2.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	-59.9	-8.8
Eggs[12]	317.3	300.3	270.0	262.7	249.7	-21.3	-7.5
Evaporated & condensed milk	14.2	10.9	8.0	7.1	7.9	-44.6	-2.5
Beer[5,8]	28.3	31.7	34.7	36.2	34.4	21.4	-0.8

na = not available.

[1] Annual average data. [2] Percent computed from unrounded data. [3] Sugar-sweetness equivalent. [4] Boneless, trimmed equivalent. [5] Gallons. [6] Includes buttermilk. [7] Includes half and half and sour cream. [8] Adult population, 21 years and over. [9] Excludes fresh pasta products. [10] White and whole wheat flour excluding durum and semolina used in pasta. [11] Dry basis. [12] Number of eggs.

Source: *Food Consumption, Prices, and Expenditures*. SB-804. USDA, ERS. May 1990.

Contact: Judith Jones Putnam (202) 786-1870.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic
Research Service. National Food Review, July-
September 1990. Pp. 1 & 2.

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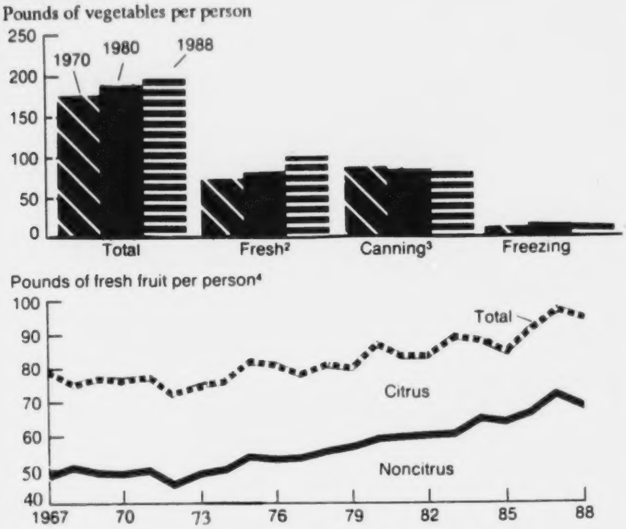
continued

AMERICANS ARE INCREASINGLY FAVORING FOODS THAT ARE FRESH, LOWFAT, AND SWEET

The American Diet Includes More Fresh Fruits and Vegetables

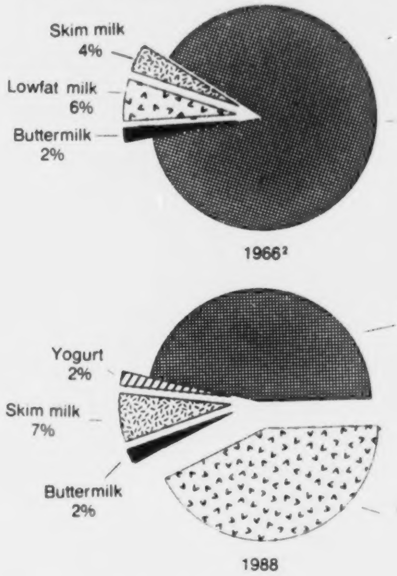


[1] Farm weight. [2] Asparagus, broccoli, carrots, cauliflower, celery, sweet corn, lettuce, onions, and tomatoes. [3] Tomato products are about 60 percent of the total. [4] Retail weight.

Source: *Food Consumption, Prices, and Expenditures 1967-88.*

Contact: Judith Jones Putnam (202) 786-1870.

The Use of Whole Milk Has Declined Dramatically[1]

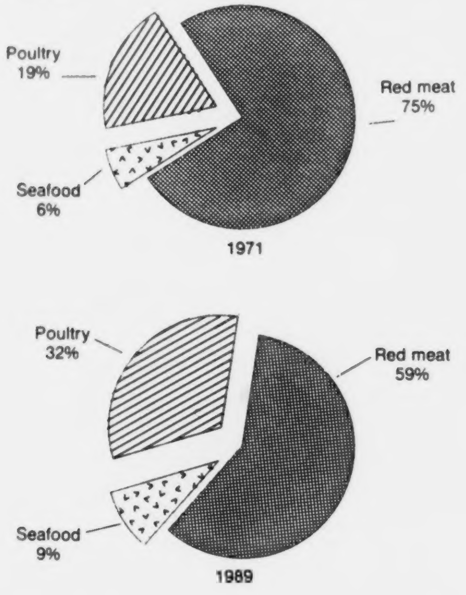


[1] Product weight. [2] Yogurt = less than 0.2 percent.

Source: *Food Consumption, Prices, and Expenditures 1967-88.* Electronic database.

Contact: Judith Jones Putnam (202) 786-1870.

Poultry and Seafood's Share of Per Capita Meat Consumption Has Grown

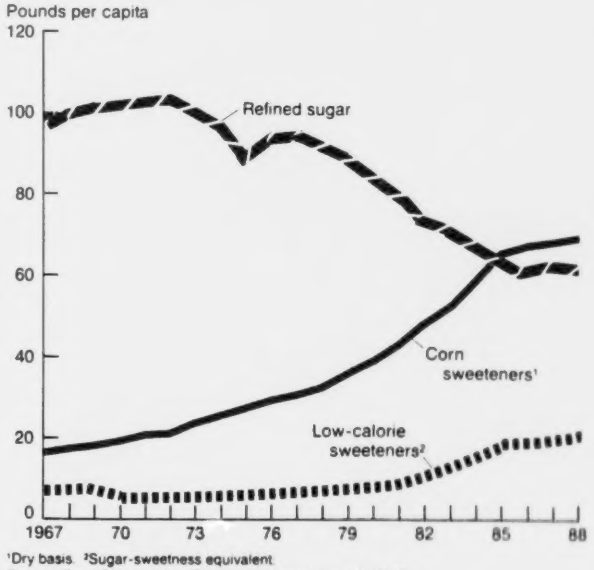


[1] Boneless, trimmed basis.

Source: *Food Consumption, Prices, and Expenditures 1967-88.*

Contact: Judith Jones Putnam (202) 786-1870.

Total Sweetener Consumption Is Up, While Low-Calorie Sweeteners Are Becoming More Popular



[1] Dry basis. [2] Sugar-sweetness equivalent.

Source: *Food Consumption, Prices, and Expenditures 1967-88.*

Contact: Judith Jones Putnam (202) 786-1870.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, July-September 1990. P. 9.

INCREASES IN U.S. INCOMES SINCE 1965 WENT MOSTLY FOR SERVICES

Component	1965	1975	1985	1988	1989
			Billion dollars		
Disposable personal income	486.8	1,142.8	2,838.7	3,477.8	3,779.4
Total personal consumption expenditures	440.8	1,012.8	2,629.0	3,235.1	3,471.1
Nondurables	191.9	416.2	911.2	1,052.3	1,123.4
Food	74.3	162.4	361.8	419.4	445.9
At home	57.4	115.1	230.5	258.6	276.6
Away from home	16.9	47.4	133.4	163.5	173.4
Alcoholic beverages	13.5	28.1	58.9	65.6	68.8
At home	9.0	19.3	39.1	41.9	43.9
Away from home	4.5	8.8	19.8	23.7	24.9
Cleaning and household supplies	5.7	12.5	26.4	30.8	33.0
Toiletries	4.5	10.3	23.1	27.9	29.7
Tobacco	8.1	15.1	32.2	36.9	40.7
Drugs	5.2	12.0	28.1	34.5	36.9
Clothing and shoes	34.1	70.8	156.4	186.8	200.1
Gasoline and oil	14.8	39.7	90.6	76.8	84.0
Fuel oil and coal	4.4	8.4	18.5	19.5	20.4
Other	27.3	56.9	115.2	153.7	163.9
Durables	63.5	135.4	372.2	455.2	473.2
Motor vehicles and parts	29.9	55.8	179.1	211.6	213.9
Furniture and household equipment	25.1	54.5	129.9	162.0	173.6
Other	8.4	25.1	63.2	81.6	85.8
Services	185.4	461.2	1,345.6	1,727.6	1,874.4
Housing	65.4	148.4	403.0	501.3	534.0
Household operation	26.5	63.5	175.3	197.6	204.4
Transportation	14.5	35.7	89.8	117.9	126.5
Personal care	8.2	13.2	32.1	43.6	49.1
Medical care	25.9	84.2	291.5	398.3	452.8
Personal business service	20.2	52.2	169.9	234.4	247.8
Recreational services	9.4	24.7	74.1	100.8	112.4
Other	15.3	39.3	109.9	134.1	147.4
Savings	34.3	104.6	125.4	144.7	206.3
Other[2]	11.7	25.4	84.3	98.0	103.4

[1] Reflects data as of March 28, 1990. Totals may not add due to rounding. [2] Includes interest paid by consumers to businesses and personal transfer payments to foreigners.

Sources: Bureau of Economic Analysis, Department of Commerce; USDA for food and alcoholic beverage data.

Contact: Alden Manchester (202) 786-1880.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, July-September 1990. P. 19.

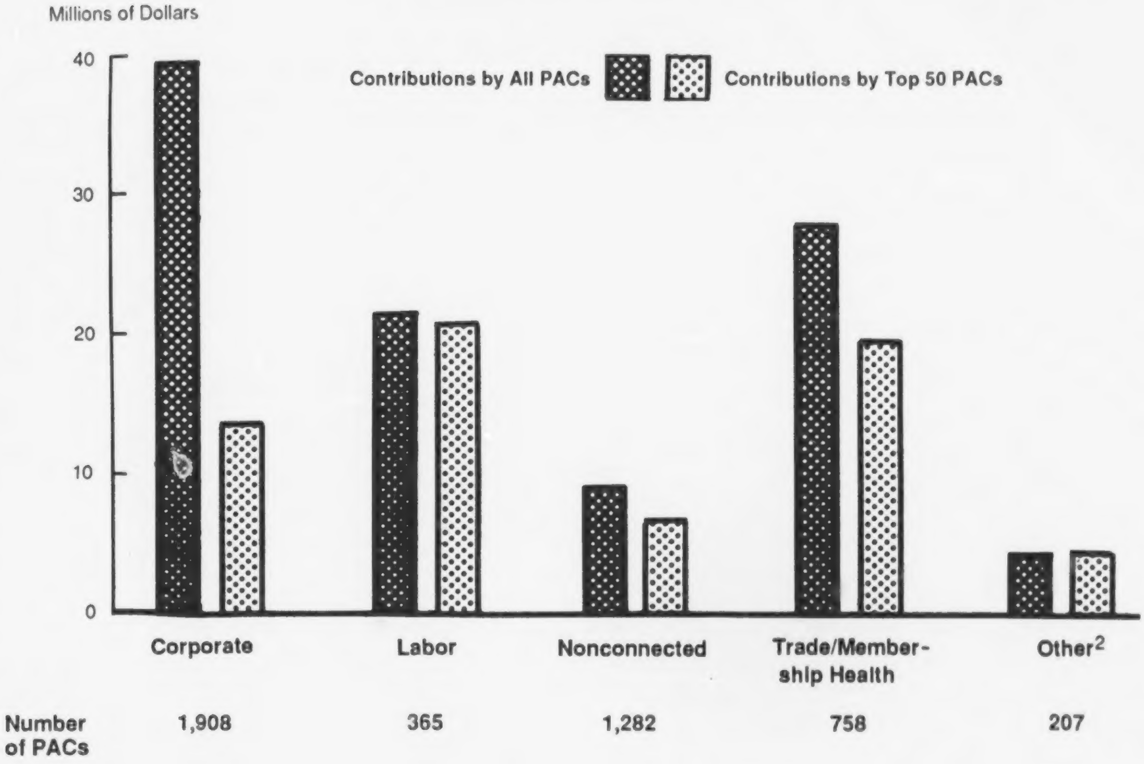
18-MONTH ACTIVITY OF PACSs

During the first 18 months of the 1990 election cycle (from January 1989 through June 1990), Political Action Committees (PACs) contributed $94 million to U.S. House and Senate candidates, as reported in an August 31, 1990, press release. When compared with the same 18-month period of the 1988 election cycle, PAC receipts rose 3.3 percent to $275 million, while spending increased 8.3 percent to $233 million.

During the 1990 cycle, PACs contributed $79 million to incumbents, $6.5 million to challengers and $8.1 million to open seat candidates. Democratic candidates received $59 million, compared with $34 million received by Republicans.

An FEC report attached to the press release compares 18-month data on PAC activity for six election cycles and also ranks the top 50 PACs in each donor category by amounts raised, spent and contributed to federal candidates as well as by cash-on-hand totals. The charts that follow compare the activity of the top 50 PACs in each category.

Comparisons of Contributions To Candidates By Top 50 PACs[1] With All PACs, January 1989-June 1990



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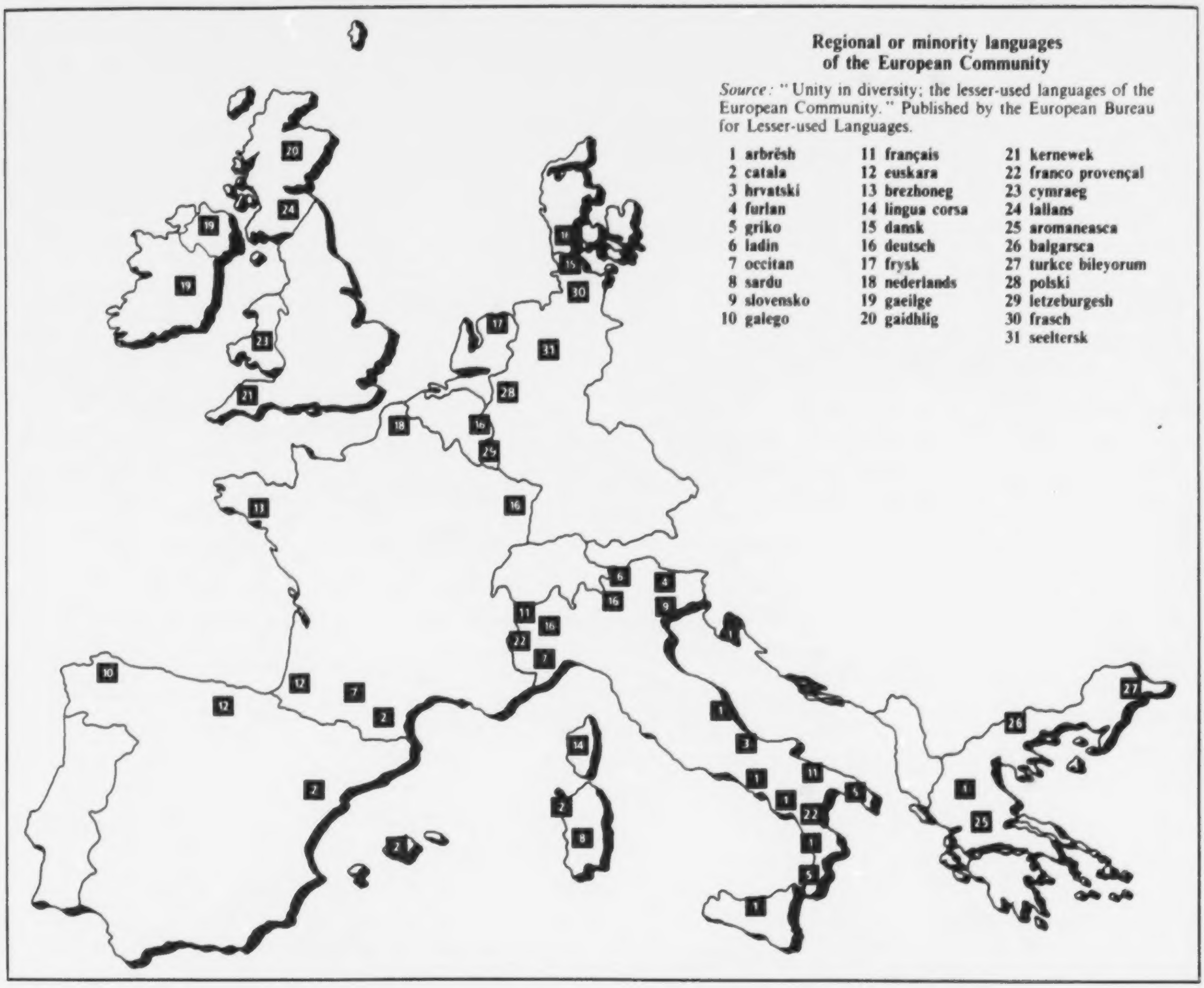
1 Ranked according to total amount contributed to candidates between January 1, 1989, and June 30, 1990.

2 "Other" category consists of PACs formed by corporations without capital stock and PACs formed by cooperatives.

Source: Federal Election Commission. (Toll-free: 800-424-9530).
RECORD, November 1990. P.6.

FOSTERING MINORITY AND REGIONAL LANGUAGES



Regional or minority languages of the European Community

Source: "Unity in diversity; the lesser-used languages of the European Community." Published by the European Bureau for Lesser-used Languages.

1	arbrësh
2	catala
3	hrvatski
4	furlan
5	griko
6	ladin
7	occitan
8	sardu
9	slovensko
10	galego
11	français
12	euskara
13	brezhoneg
14	lingua corsa
15	dansk
16	deutsch
17	frysk
18	nederlands
19	gaeilge
20	gaidhlig
21	kernewek
22	franco provençal
23	cymraeg
24	lallans
25	aromaneasca
26	balgarsca
27	turkce bileyorum
28	polski
29	letzeburgesh
30	frasch
31	seeltersk

From Lingua to Mercator: Fostering Communication Between Languages

Proof of the European Community's interest in the language problem is supplied by its financing of various programmes in this field--LINGUA and MERCATOR, for example, adopted in 1989.

LINGUA, which has been allocated ECU 200 million for 1990-94, has been designed to provide Community measures to support and back up the national schemes in each of the Member States of the EEC. The idea is to encourage Europeans to speak languages other than their mother tongue properly--including those which are less common and less taught. The particular aims of the Community measures are to promote the in-service training of foreign language teachers, the learning of foreign languages in universities and, more especially, the initial training of foreign language teachers, a knowledge of the foreign languages used in work relations and economic life, and the development of educational exchanges for young people following a technical or vocational training course and those undergoing specialist or vocational training within the Community.

MERCATOR involves setting up a data and documentation network to improve the exchange of information on minority languages and cultures. A computer data bank could be created. Four pilot centres -- The Fryske Akademy at Ljouwert-Leeuwarden (Netherlands), the SIEMEM at Barcelona (Spain), University College, Aberystwyth (Wales, UK) and the French committee of the European Bureau for Lesser-Used Languages, all to be coordinated by the Fryske Akademy -- have already volunteered to get the programme off the ground. They are currently dealing with four topics--the media, legal and institutional aspects, general studies and education

It should be remembered that the language question is of particular operational importance in the European institutions because the Community currently uses nine official languages--Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish.

Source: Excerpted from Africa-Caribbean-Pacific -- European Community's The Courier, July-August 1990. P. 48.

The Community language list

Belgium

Dutch is the official language in Flanders. French is the official language in Wallonia. In Brussels both languages have equal validity. German is the official language of the Eupen-St. Vith area (German-speaking community) but is not officially recognised in Montzen (North-east of the Province of Liège) and Arel (Arlon, in the Province of Luxembourg).

Denmark

Danish is the state language. German is spoken close to the German border.

France

French is the state language. Catalan is spoken in the south east. Corsican is spoken on the island of Corsica. Occitan is spoken across the south. German is spoken in Alsace and Lorraine. A dialectal form of Dutch is spoken in the north east, near the Belgian border. Basque is spoken in the south west, on the border with Spain. Breton is spoken in the north west, in Brittany.

Federal Republic of Germany

German is the state language. North Frisian is spoken in the federal state of Schleswig-Holstein. Saterland Frisian is spoken in Saterland. Danish is spoken on the border with Denmark. Polish is spoken in the Ruhr area.

Greece

Greek is the state language. Arvinite is spoken in areas throughout the country. Aromanian is spoken in the central region. Slav is spoken in the north. Turkish is spoken in Thrace to the north east.

Ireland

Both Irish and English are official languages and are spoken throughout the country.

Italy

Italian is the state language. French is the official language of the Val d'Aosta. Albanian is spoken in parts of the south and in Sicily. Catalan is spoken in the town of Alghero in Sardinia. Croatian is spoken in the province of Molise. Franco-Provençal is spoken in the Val d'Aosta. Friulan is spoken in Friuli in the north east. Greek is spoken in Calabria and Puglia. Ladin is spoken in Bolzano, Trent and Belluno. Occitan is spoken in Piedmont and Calabria. Sardinian is spoken on the island of Sardinia. Slovene is spoken in the north east. German is the official language of the province of South-Tirol (Bozen) but is not recognised in some German-speaking areas of the north and in the Canale valley.

Netherlands

Dutch is the state language. Frisian is spoken in the northern province of Friesland.

Luxembourg

Letzeburgesch is the state language but it is not a working language of the EC. French is regarded as the diplomatic language and is used in scientific and political relations. The main language of the written media is German.

Portugal

Portuguese is the state language. There are no other autochthonous linguistic groups.

Spain

Spanish or Castillian is the official language of the state. Catalan is proper to Catalonia and is the official language of Catalonia, Valencia, and the Balearic Islands. Basque is proper to the Basque Country and is the official language in the autonomous Basque Community and in certain regions of Navarre. Galician is proper to Galicia and is also an official language of Galicia.

United Kingdom

English is the state language. Scots Gaelic is spoken in the highlands and islands of Scotland. Lallans is spoken in central and southern Scotland. Irish is spoken in Northern Ireland. Cornish is spoken in Cornwall. Welsh is spoken in Wales.

In addition Sinti-Roma is spoken by the Gypsy people in many EC Member States

The *de facto* and *de jure* situations of these minority and regional languages are very different.

The *de facto* situations vary widely, with the language being spoken in a homogeneous region or part-region of a state in some cases, on either side of a frontier astride two or even three states in others, or, as with Albanian in Italy, in a whole series of separate villages in different regions.

The legal status varies widely, too, with some languages being protected by domestic laws and some by international treaties and others having no legal protection at all. The practical content of such protection, where it exists, varies from one country — and often from one language — to another within the same country...

-- Another Example --

Lallans, sometimes also called "Scots", is the vernacular language of Scotland south and east of the Highlands -- an area which contains four-fifths of Scotland's 5,130,175 population within a total area of 78,763 sq.kms. With the retreat of Gaelic from the lowlands in the fourteenth century, Lallans became the everyday language of the population in the lowlands. It remained so until three events led to the upper classes turning to English -- the publication of the Bible in English in 1560, the Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland in 1603 and the Union of the two Parliament sin 1707 -- and of course, the dominance of English in government and commerce for the last 250 years. There is no census or estimate of the number of speakers of Lallans.

The Lallans tongue has no legal status. There is no formal use in public administration although it is used in spoken communication. Similarly there is no formal educational use of the language. Use of the language on television and radio is restricted to informal situations. Greater use is made of it in the press, especially in one Sunday newspaper.

Source: European Bureau for Lesser-Used Languages.

Source: Excerpted from Africa-Caribbean-Pacific -- European Community's The Courier, July-August 1990. Pp. 47 & 49.

AFRICA: OPEN FOR U.S. BUSINESS

The following article was written by Jeffrey L. Greenblum, Director, Office of Africa, International Trade Administration, (U.S. Department of Commerce). Reprinted here from that agency's Business America, October 22, 1990. Pp. 2 & 3.

Much has changed in the seven years since this magazine last published a flagship article focusing on Africa. Foremost among these is that one does not talk continually, and in dire tones, of the African Economic Crisis. The locusts have in large measure been defeated. The rains have returned to most areas. The prices for a number of mineral exports have strengthened and stabilized at profitable levels. Most strikingly, however, the crisis that was in Africa has compelled the political leaders in those countries to acknowledge the economic failure of centrally-planned economies and the advantages of market-based economies.

The turn of the calendar into the 1990s has seen a steady abandonment by hardline African socialist leaders of the economic policies they had followed for the last 15 years. Sassou-Nguesso of the Congo signed a Bilateral Investment Treaty with the United States during his official visit in February. He then sent his petroleum ministers on to Houston to present their country's oil prospects to U.S. corporate oil executives to interest them in further investments in the Congo.

Ratsiraka of Madagascar has introduced an entirely new investment code. He permitted free market pricing for the politically sensitive commodity, rice. Early this summer he returned to private ownership the very French bank his government had nationalized at the start of his tenure in 1975.

Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia, the most respected African founding father still a head of state, and the sincere proponent of African humanism (self-help socialism), has himself strongly moved into the reform arena. Despite the hardships caused by reform, which have contributed to riots in the urban centers in response to the reduction of food subsidies, Kaunda has continued to stress the imperative need for reform and adjustment, and the importance of private initiative, profit, and market pricing to economic growth.

Mozambique is enacting reforms on a number of fronts—economic as well as political—to open the economy and the political structure to freedom in all its many aspects: private enterprise, free speech and press, and an open multiparty political system that separates the state from any political party.

Aspects of African Economic Vitality Frequently Not Mentioned in the Lay Press

The changes are particularly strong in the area of investment climate. After ten years, the government of Zimbabwe has signed an agreement enabling the Overseas Private Investment Corporation to operate in that country. Africa's newest nation, Namibia, made signing an OPIC agreement one of its first acts upon gaining statehood. Botswana, Niger, Swaziland, and Mali, among others, have requested Commerce Department assistance in presenting their investment prospects to the American business community. In addition to Madagascar, a number of countries are revising their investment codes. Several countries have established one-stop centers to assist the foreign investor. Kenya has recently entered into a Telecommunications Memorandum of Understanding with the United States, so as to encourage business in that sector between our countries, and is also in the process of creating a more attractive investment climate. After a hiatus of several years, there is now renewed interest in bilateral investment treaties with the United States.

These examples are illustrative of the refreshing winds of positive economic change blowing throughout the continent. Not all of the countries' problems have been solved, by any measure. There are still enormous debt burdens to be borne and innumerable parastatals to be restructured, but there is awareness of the problems to be faced and, in country after country, a willingness to come to grips with them and find a way out.

For these reasons, we in the Commerce Department's Office of Africa find in the markets of Africa a renewed challenge offering significant prospects to both the American exporter and investor at the start of this new decade. ❖

continued

U.S. AND SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: THE TOP PRODUCTS TRADED IN 1989

TOP U.S. EXPORTS TO SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA (1989)(1)

Aircraft, parts, and equipment	558.3
Construction and mining machinery	421.4
Industrial and agricultural chemicals	410.7
Grains and grain products	335.2
Other specialized machinery (2)	237.9
Computers and business equipment	183.3
Plastics and plastic products	133.6
Communications and radar equipment	119.4
Motor vehicles and parts	110.0
Pulp and paper products	106.8
Agricultural machinery	98.8
Steel products	67.8
Power generation and transmission equipment	57.5
Animal and vegetable oils	51.7
Petroleum and petroleum products	46.3
Published material and other media	45.5
Tobacco and tobacco products	43.9
Medical equipment and instruments	41.1

TOP U.S. IMPORTS FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA(1989)(1)

Petroleum and petroleum products	8494.9
Non-ferrous metals (3)	1449.5
Ferrous metals	326.0
Diamonds and gemstones	297.5
Fruits and nuts	250.8
All metalic ores	230.2
Forestry, pulp, and paper products	190.9
Coffee	175.0
Leather, textiles, and apparel	155.4
Fish, meat, and other food preparations	64.0
Industrial and agricultural chemicals	53.7
Sugar	52.5
Cocoa products	45.2
Tobacco	36.3

Notes:

(1) Millions of U.S. Dollars, unless otherwised indicated.

(2) For example, food processing, packaging, sewing and cutting, and heating equipment.

(3) Includes aluminum, copper, and platinum.

continued →

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, October 22, 1990. P. 11.

AFRICA: AMERICA'S LAST TRADE FRONTIER

The following text has been excerpted from an article by Sally K. Miller, Office of Africa, U.S. Department of Commerce, Business America, October 22, 1990, Pp. 4 & 6.

Trade statistics for the first half of 1990 indicate that U.S. exports to Africa are again on the increase. Shipments through June have increased 13 percent over last year. U.S. exports for 1990 could exceed the $4 billion mark for the first time since 1984. While it is far too early to declare that the United States has become a major trade player in Africa, these figures reflect the fact that U.S. businesses are no longer deterred by the old, erroneous perceptions that Africa is too far away (no further than Buenos Aires), the markets are too small (600 million people, more than 2 1/2 times the population of the United States), too poor (several African countries have per capita GDPs that rank them as middle-income countries), or too difficult and expensive to contact (instantaneous fax service between a Utah firm and a customer in Malawi cost all of 82 cents).

There are a growing number of factors making Africa an attractive market to sell to and invest in. African food production is now expanding faster than population growth. The governments have increasing amounts of foreign exchange and revenues available for needed domestic maintenance programs and purchases of capital goods imports. More than 30 African countries are seriously engaged in economic reform, laying the foundation for solid medium- and long-term growth. Reforms enacted include lowering overvalued exchange rates; paying market-based prices to farmers; reducing or removing governmental controls; eliminating costly subsidies; reducing both import and export controls; tightening fiscal discipline; liberalizing markets to promote greater competition; revising investment codes to permit more private foreign investment; and actively recruiting foreign investors for the funds, equipment, and skills that they bring to the country's economy.

International, particularly multilateral, development banks will play a key role in framing and funding projects in Africa. Four organizations are critical to this process: the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank (WB), the African Development Bank and Fund (AfDB), and the European Investment Bank (EIB) under the Lome Convention.

The IMF is the key player in formulating economic adjustment and reform strategies, outlining the conditions, setting the funding levels, and conducting quarterly progress reviews as a prerequisite to the further release of funds. The IMF can also under certain conditions exercise debt forgiveness.

The World Bank furthers the reform process by providing funding for new projects essential for development and for the assistance of ongoing production. In addition to its own funding of training and staffing for the improvement of management skills for state-owned entities, the World Bank affiliate, the International Finance Corporation, can fund as an equity partner in private sector projects on the continent.

The AfDB is becoming an ever larger player in the project lending field in Africa, as it annually commits in excess of some $2 billion in new projects. The U.S. government is aware of the key role which commercial intelligence plays in landing bank contracts. The Commerce Department is establishing another U.S. and Foreign Commercial Service officer in Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire, just to develop up-to-the-minute commercial information for U.S. firms on AfBD projects. The officer will personally assist U.S. companies and their local representatives in competing for these contracts.

The EIB is the project lending arm of the Lome Convention, the comprehensive preferential agreement between the European Community (EC) and its members' former African, Caribbean, and Pacific colonies. U.S. firms would have to access these funds through their subsidiaries in the European Community.

Large-scale infrastructure projects—predominantly in the telecommunications and transportation sectors, and occasionally in the power sector—are the backbone of these organizations' agendas. Smaller projects are also focusing on critical service needs: health care delivery and training, utility management, customs enforcement, and education.

Leading U.S. exports indicate three other areas where American firms are expanding their market presence: mining equipment, computers, and health care equipment. Price improvements for copper, cobalt, rhodium iron ore, and the range of ferroalloys have decreased the risk of expansion plans for both the short- and medium-term. Computer literacy is spreading in Africa as information age professionals enter the ranks of management in both the government and private sectors. Aside from the traditional markets of South Africa and Zimbabwe, computer shipments are going into practically every country in Africa.

American health care equipment suppliers are finding several ways to become established in the African marketplace...

continued ⟶

AFRICA AT A GLANCE

(Economic indicators - 1989 estimates) (1)

Country	Population (2)	GDP	Total Country Imports	U.S. Exports to	U.S. Imports from	Foreign Exchange Reserves
Angola	9.7	7416	1273	97.6	1683.3	193.1
Benin	4.7	1835	442	17.6	7.1	0.7
Botswana	1.3	2479	1271	30.1	16.7	2791.0
Burkina Faso	8.7	1300	530	10.8	0.4	248.2
Burundi	5.3	1097	152	0.8	4.5	87.6
Cameroon	11.2	11230	1952	35.8	414.8	79.3
C.A.R.	2.9	1129	279	5.6	2.9	113.1
Chad	5.6	943	214	35.2	0.1	126.8
Comoros	0.4	175	27	0.2	7.9	24.0
Congo	2.2	2284	586	12.1	505.6	14.0
Cote d'Ivoire	12.1	9373	1704	79.2	234.3	9.8
D'Jibouti	0.4	350	326	3.1	0.1	57.2
Equatorial Guinea	0.4	135	59	0.2	0.1	0.7
Ethiopia	49.0	5216	973	68.5	70.5	46.0
Gabon	1.1	3577	767	46.4	417.6	34.3
Gambia	0.8	198	100	10.3	1.7	19.2
Ghana	14.6	6832	1108	122.7	127.5	317.4
Guinea	7.1	1910	650	40.0	133.0	41.6
Western Africa (3)	1.5	650	200	8.8	2.0	20.0
Kenya	24.1	8233	2180	133.0	68.3	257.1
Lesotho (4)	1.7	768	519	4.1	18.9	46.3
Liberia	2.4	1139	272	98.3	107.0	7.8
Madagascar	11.2	1796	371	7.3	37.7	245.2
Malawi	8.6	1615	494	14.1	35.3	97.0
Mali	8.9	2010	160	10.7	7.2	104.2
Mauritania	2.0	942	567	12.5	10.2	82.3
Mauritius	1.1	1700	1479	12.4	159.1	511.2
Mozambique	15.3	1275	775	40.9	19.7	166.5
Namibia	1.6	1765	918	12.7	14.8	76.0
Niger	7.5	2410	450	9.5	2.2	199.8
Nigeria	114.0	27702	6696	491.8	5226.5	1765.0
Rwanda	7.0	1882	170	2.4	6.8	51.1
Senegal	7.4	4667	1004	68.7	41.4	13.0
Seychelles	0.1	267	145	82.3	5.6	12.0
Sierra Leone	4.0	1302	156	25.1	53.2	3.7
Somalia	8.2	1630	451	20.9	0.3	15.4
South Africa	37.1	90100	16800	1659.1	1529.0	958.0
Sudan	24.5	9039	1374	80.8	19.8	15.9
Swaziland	0.8	561	425	3.0	26.8	185.7
Tanzania	24.8	2493	1277	28.9	31.0	54.2
Togo	3.2	1408	502	27.9	2.9	283.3
Uganda	17.0	4920	563	23.1	40.0	14.1
Zaire	36.0	5633	2106	121.9	331.6	190.2
Zambia	7.8	4792	1033	49.6	24.1	243.0
Zimbabwe	9.4	5845	1340	120.8	127.0	93.8
TOTALS	499.1	224023	54840	3786.5	11756.2	9886.2

(1) Millions of U.S. Dollars, unless otherwise indicated. (2) Millions of people. (3) Guineau Bissau, Cape Verde Islands, and Sao Tome & Principe. (4) Gross national product is used to include mineworkers' remittances.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, October 22, 1990. P.5.

OPINION

CRONKITE BLASTS MEDIA FOR AVOIDING POLITICAL ISSUES

The following is reprinted with permission from the Harvard University Gazette, November 23, 1990. P.4.

The media contribute to public cynicism about politics and to a decline in the number of American voters by focusing on political manipulation rather than on issues, Walter Cronkite said Nov. 15 at the Kennedy School of Government.

Cronkite, CBS news correspondent from 1950 to 1981 and managing editor of its *Evening News* from 1962 to 1981, accused his former profession of concentrating on the "sizzle rather than the steak."

"In emphasizing political manipulation rather than issues, we of the press probably have contributed to public cynicism about the political process," he said. "The fault for this lies with all of us—the politicians, the press, and the public that tolerates an educational system that turns out a population, which in large numbers, is too illiterate to participate meaningfully in a democracy," said Cronkite.

Cronkite, who holds an honorary degree from the University, gave the first Theodore H. White Memorial Lecture, which was sponsored by the Joan Shorenstein Barone Center on the Press, Politics and Public Policy. Cronkite's hard-hitting speech was delivered before a packed ARCO Forum.

Cronkite said that White, one of the great journalists of the 20th century, "almost ruined political reporting . . . . "He exposed all the nuts and bolts and told a fascinated world how the gears meshed and the engine worked, who the real mechanics were, and how they tinkered with this part or another to make the machine run better," said Cronkite.

Journalists, "previously panting in pursuit" of the issues, "skidded to a stop like Woody Woodpecker" and "went chasing off after technique instead of substance, and thirty years later [the press] is only beginning to get back on the track of substance," said Cronkite.

"But Teddy himself never suggested that campaign tactics and technique *should* be more important than the substance of the issues and it is not his fault that we, his followers and admirers . . . have concentrated on the sizzle rather than the steak," he said.

Some fault, he said, may be placed squarely on television because in spite of the brief moment of glory in television's infancy during the coverage of the convention of 1952 when "the public received a wonderful civics lesson," by 1956 the parties had begun to "sanitize their convention proceedings.

"From that day forward, the image on the orthicon tube has been the most important aspect of a political campaign, and politics and television have gone skipping hand-in-hand down this primrose path," he said.

Cronkite took issue with the sound bite and the network's effort "to satisfy the short attention span of a hyperkinetic, speeded-up world that has led to supertruncated headline reporting on the evening news."

He cited the research of Kiku Adatto, a former Shorenstein Barone Center fellow who showed that in 1988 the average block of uninterrupted speech by a presidential candidate on network newscasts was 9.8 seconds.

"Clearly no meaningful explanation of issues is possible in that sort of oratorical burst, which occasionally does not include a noun or verb," he said. Since nothing of significance can be said in 9.8 seconds, issues can be avoided rather than confronted, he said.

Cronkite also took issue with the photo opportunity, "the photo bite that will show the candidate in the most favorable light and has a good chance of making the evening news."

He also castigated political debates as "a part of the unconscionable fraud that our political campaigns have become . . . because the candidates participate only with the guarantee of a format that defies meaningful discourse. They should be charged with sabotaging the electoral process."

Cronkite sees the short political commercial as the twin evil to debates. These advertisements are misused to sell the candidates and to permit scurrilous attacks on opponents while relieving the candidate of that responsibility.

"All of this—the photo opportunity, the manipulation of the sound bite, the control of the so-called debates, the barrage of expensive commercials"—results in "the turning of political campaigns into political theater to be played out on television's home screens," he said.

Cronkite said that cable networks CNN and C-Span are helping to fill the gap by showing the way to fuller coverage of politics and government. He would like to see the networks show more responsibility by dropping sound bites and featuring longer interviews dealing with the issues and not with the mechanics of the campaign.

He suggested that campaign financing be relieved of the heavy burden of television time purchases. "One solution might be to ban all commercial television time and force the candidates on to public television and cable's public access channels."

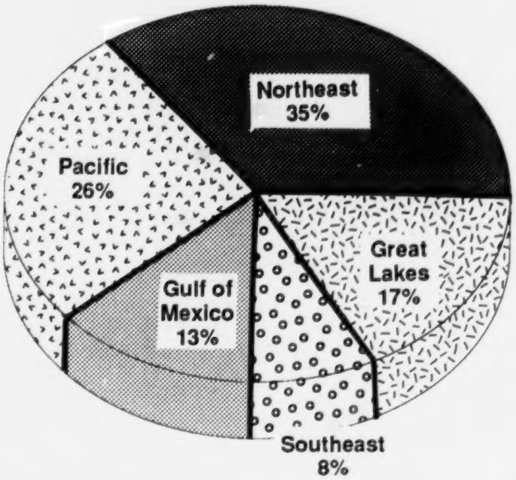
"The real key to improving both our electoral process and voter participation is—as in so much else in our decaying society—education," he said. "We all know Thomas Jefferson's admonition: The nation that expects to be ignored and and free expects what never will and never can be." ❖

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE NATION'S COASTAL POPULATION

The Northeast and the Pacific regions have the largest coastal populations [1] in the U.S. today [2]. Together they account for about 28% of the entire U.S. population.

From 1960 to 2010, the coastal population will have grown from 80 million to more than 127 million people, an increase of almost 60 percent.

[1] Population in Coastal Counties [2] 1988 data



	Year 1960		Year 1988		Year 2010	
Region	Absolute*	Density**	Absolute*	Density**	Absolute*	Density**
NORTHEAST						
Total	52,566	256	61,984	302	68,028	332
Coastal Counties	33,116		39,053	757	42,922	932
Coastal Percent	63%		63%		63%	
GREAT LAKES						
Total	67,741	163	76,052	183	81,641	196
Coastal Counties	18,367		18,892	274	19,755	286
Coastal Percent	27%		25%		24%	
SOUTHEAST						
Total	15,833	83	29,425	154	35,025	183
Coastal Counties	3,992	107	9,131	245	11,214	301
Coastal Percent	25%		31%		32%	
GULF OF MEXICO						
Total	20,293	44	41,800	91	49,882	109
Coastal Counties	7,352	93	14,726	187	17,932	227
Coastal Percent	36%		35%		36%	
PACIFIC						
Total	21,198	24	38,254	43	45,721	51
Coastal Counties	16,930	30	29,840	64	35,404	76
Coastal Percent	80%		78%		77%	

* Thousand Persons ** Persons per Square Mile

World Eagle chart and table. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. NOAA. National Ocean Service. 50 Years of Population Change Along the Nation's Coasts, 1960-2010. April 1990. Second Printing October 1990.)

IN A PROFILE OF HUMAN DEPRIVATION, TENS OF MILLIONS OF PEOPLE

Minimum of Ten Million People in each of the following countries estimated to have been without access to Health Services, 1985-1987

Nigeria	63
Bangladesh	60
Pakistan	52
Indonesia	35
Myanmar	27
Zaire	25
Ethiopia	24
Thailand	16
Vietnam	13
Colombia	12
Iran	12
Sudan	12
Afghanistan	11

Estimated Total for World: 1,500,000,000

Minimum of Ten Million People in each of the following countries estimated to have been without access to Adequate Sanitation 1985-1987

India	737
Indonesia	110
Bangladesh	103
Pakistan	92
Brazil	52
Mexico	36
Myanmar	30
Thailand	25
Philippines	20
Nepal	18
Mozambique	12
Uganda	12
Peru	11
Algeria	10

World Eagle table. Data from United Nations Development Programme. Human Development Report 1990. Table 3. Pp. 132-133.

Minimum of Ten Million People in each of the following countries estimated to have been without access to Safe Water, 1985-1987

India	352
Indonesia	109
Pakistan	64
Bangladesh	59
Nigeria	57
Ethiopia	38
Vietnam	35
Brazil	32
Myanmar	29
Philippines	29
Zaire	23
Mexico	20
Sudan	19
Thailand	19
Kenya	16
Uganda	14
Egypt	14
Argentina	14
Nepal	13
Iran	13
Afghanistan	12
Mozambique	12
Turkey	12
Tanzania	11
Sri Lanka	10

Estimated Total for World: 1,750,000,000

Minimum of Ten Million People in each of the following countries estimated to have been Illiterate Adults, 1985-1987

India	297
China	251
Pakistan	44
Bangladesh	41
Nigeria	31
Indonesia	29
Brazil	21
Egypt	17
Iran	15
Sudan	10

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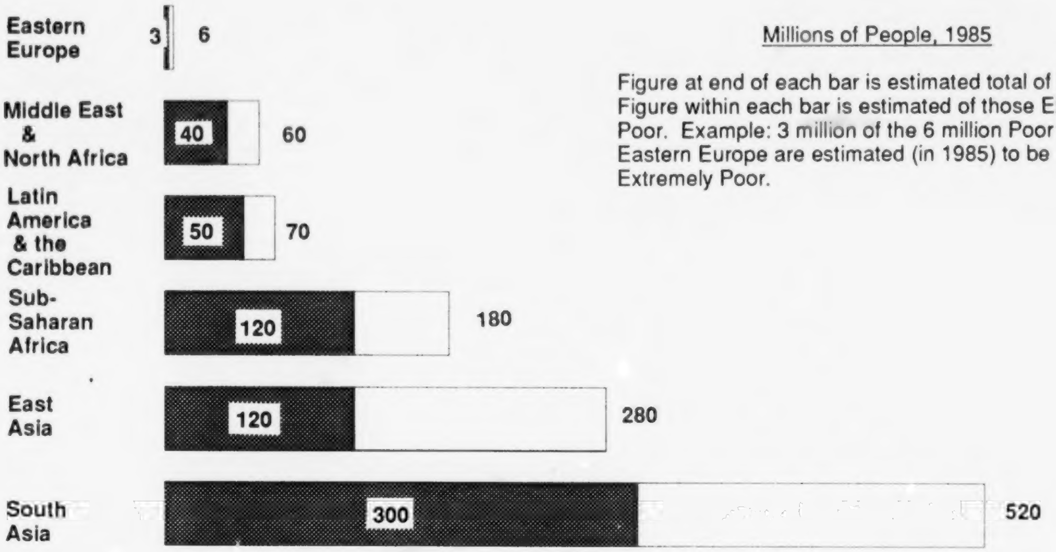
WHERE THE DEVELOPING WORLD'S POOR LIVE



Millions of People, 1985

Figure at end of each bar is estimated total of Poor. Figure within each bar is estimated of those Extremely Poor. Example: 3 million of the 6 million Poor in Eastern Europe are estimated (in 1985) to be Extremely Poor.

The World Bank Says Poverty Policies Must Do Three Things

For development to reduce poverty, policies that accomplish three broad tasks are required:

. First and foremost, economy-wide and sectoral policies must encourage rural development and urban employment. Experience and analysis indicate that this requires moderate taxation of agriculture and relatively undistorted product and factor markets. It also requires public provision of infrastructure and an environment that makes technical change accessible to small farmers and the urban poor.

. Second, specific policies are needed to improve the participation of the poor in growth by increasing their access to land, credit, and public infrastructure and services. Land transfers can reduce poverty, but they succeed only in special circumstances. Other policies to increase and secure access to land can also reduce poverty. Subsidized credit programs have failed to reach the poor, but approaches such as group lending offer a promising alternative. Flexible programs that involve the intended beneficiaries, build institutions, employ nongovernmental organizations and local groups, and respond to local needs are the best way of molding infrastructure, services, and technology to the needs of the poor.

. Third, resource-poor regions, where poverty and environmental degradation are interrelated, need a different approach. Since the potential for growth in these regions is limited and the population is increasing, policies that facilitate outmigration are essential. But in many of these regions additional investment, which is likely to require government subsidies, will still be necessary to meet basic needs, maintain or increase yields, and preserve natural resources.

World Eagle chart based on one in the World Bank Policy Research Bulletin, May-June 1990. Received September 24, 1990. Text from same source, p. 3. Reprinted with permission.

A FLASHBACK TO ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO

The material below are the opening paragraphs of an article in Public Health Reports, Journal Journal of the U.S. Public Health Service. Volume 105, No. 4. July-August 1990. P. 374.

1889 to 1989: a Century of Health and Disease

Alan R. Hinman, MD, MPH

Dr. Hinman is an Assistant Surgeon General with the Public Health Service and Director of the Center for Prevention Services at the Centers for Disease Control, mail stop E07, Atlanta GA 30333.
Tearsheet requests to Dr. Hinman.

This paper is based on a presentation at the 24th annual meeting of the Public Health Service Professional Association on March 28, 1989, in New Orleans.

Synopsis..
This article traces some of the most important changes in demographics, health, and disease in the United States since 1889.

The nation has grown, urbanized, and aged. Life expectancy has increased dramatically. Major health problems have shifted from communicable diseases to those resulting from environmental and behavioral influences.

The Commissioned Corps of the Public Health Service, a uniformed cadre of professionals in all the fields of public health, was formed in 1889 and has played an important role in the health progress of the past century. It promises to play just as significant a role in the future.

At the beginning of 1889, there were only 38 states in the Union. During the year, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were added, bringing the total to 42. In early March, Benjamin Harrison was inaugurated President even though he had lost the popular vote to Grover Cleveland. The Oklahoma Territory was opened to settlers and in the great land rush the name "Sooners" was used to describe those who had gotten in a little early. The total population of the United States was just under 63 million (1), compared with the current 241 million (2).

Several notable figures were born in 1889, including Charles Chaplin, Jean Cocteau, Adolph Hitler, George S. Kaufman, and Arnold Toynbee. 1889 was also the year in which the Wall Street Journal began publishing; George Eastman developed roll film; the safety bicycle was introduced into the United States; and electric lights were installed in the White House.

Parenthetically, neither President Harrison nor his wife would touch the switches, so an employee had to turn the lights on in the evening and they remained on until morning, when another employee would come around and turn them off.

Aunt Jemima pancake flour was invented - the first self-rising flour and the first ready-mix food produced for consumers. In England, Jerome K. Jerome wrote "Three Men in a Boat," arguably the funniest book ever written, and in the United States, Mark Twain wrote "A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court."

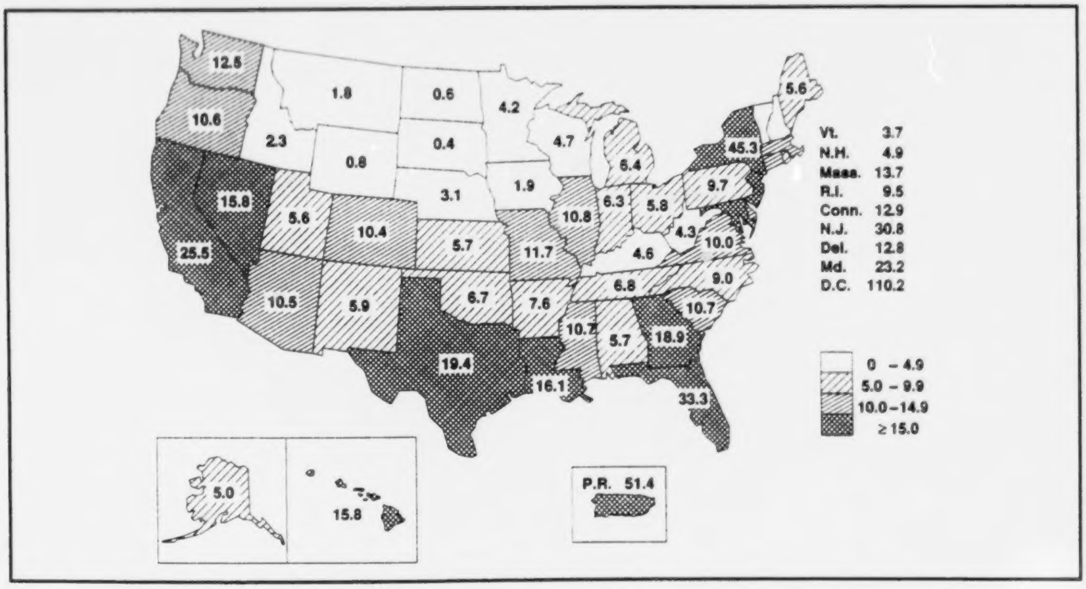
Government was much smaller in 1889 and actually made a profit (2,3). There was a budget surplus that year of $88 million! It is of some interest that the majority of Federal revenues (90 percent) came from excise taxes on alcohol and tobacco, whereas now these provide only a small portion of Federal income(6 percent in 1987).

London's Savoy Hotel opened, the first British hotel to have private baths. The French Panama Canal Company went bankrupt after spending more than $250 million and losing in excess of 20,000 workers to disease. The dam on Conemaugh Lake, Pennsylvania, the largest volume reservoir in the United States gave way. A wall of water one-half mile wide and 40 feet high swept through the Johnstown valley, killing between 2,000 and 5,000 people. John L. Sullivan defeated Jake Kilrain in the last major bare-knuckle prize fight. They fought 75 rounds for 2 hours and 16 minutes in the 106-degree heat of Richburg MS.

The nation's public health infrastructure was somewhat primitive. Although the decennial census began in 1790, it was not until 1880 that a Federal registration area was established for deaths. This included Massachusetts, New Jersey, the District of Columbia, and several cities and contained, in total, approximately 17 percent of the population. In 1900, annual reports of vital statistics were first reported from the death registration states, which by then totaled 10 states and the District of Columbia, containing some 23 percent of the population. Vital statistics data covering the entire country were not available until 1933... ❖

PROFILES

AIDS Cases Per 1000,000 Population - United States,
October 1989-September 1990



Centers for Disease Control. Morbidity And Mortality Weekly Report, October 26, 1990/Vol. 39/No. 42. P. 771.

Some Thoughts From Germany Concerning Automobiles

Pooling Cars: An Alternative to Ownership

Rather than lecturing on the evils of private car ownership, three Berlin brothers have come up with a practical solution: many people share a few automobiles. The brothers run an unusual car rental agency: for a 500 DM initiation fee, 4 DM hourly, and 20 Pfennigs per kilometer, members may use one of the seven agency cars. The 65 members, largely professionals, must abide by one other rule: they may not have a car of their own. Members set up appointments and pick up the keys from a small wall safe on the street. The only problem so far has been demand: nearly every tenth request has to be denied because of overbooking.

Many participants had already given up their private cars, but found they needed a vehicle for transportation every now and then. Others were on the verge of buying their own car, and heard about the venture. "Eventually," one of the owners said, "we'd like people to associate having their own car with stupidity. If things continue this way, owning a car will become such a drag that people will lose all desire for them."

Demonstrators Call for End of "Car Lunacy"

A recent demonstration for a change in transportation policies in Gottingen (Lower Saxony), organized by several environmental protection groups, brought together thousands of people on foot, bicycle, and roller skates. Calling for a "shift in policy" and an end to "car lunacy," the protesters marched along a stretch of the A7 highway, spilling onto the adjoining on-ramps; police on bicycles kept the area free of cars for several hours.

The marchers carried signs calling for more public transportation, a 100-kilometer speed limit on highways in all of Germany, a 30-kilometer limit throughout Gottingen, and an end to what they called a "cars first" attitude.

Topfer: Cars Should Be Recycled, Too

Environmental Minister Klaus Topfer recently called upon the automobile industry to establish a recycling system for their products. In response to a question from the Christian Democratic/Christian Social Union (CDU/CSU) parliamentary group in Bonn, Topfer suggested that a deposit be added to the price of new cars. The last owner would collect the deposit when turning in the car for recycling. Topfer maintained that car producers have an obligation to dispose of their products in a responsible way and indicated that legal measures would be taken if the industry did not regulate itself in this area.

The German Information Center, New York. The Week in Germany, November 2 and 16, 1990.

PROFILES continued

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION
TOBACCO OR HEALTH

Tobacco Alert

The first issue of the revived newsletter *Tobacco Alert* was issued in January 1990. It introduces the new logo for the Tobacco or Health Programme and reports on the worldwide activities on the occasion of the second World No-Tobacco Day which was celebrated on 31 May 1989. It also contains materials and suggestions for the third World No-Tobacco Day (31 May 1990). The theme for that day is "Childhood and youth without tobacco". Themes for the next two years have already been chosen:

1991 Tobacco in public places and on public transport
1992 Tobacco at the place of work.

The Tobacco or Health Programme is thus intensifying its efforts because exchange of information and data with official counterparts in national governments is more important than ever before.

Tobacco Alert also contains notes and news about the worldwide fight against tobacco, as well as epidemiological information. It is available free of charge from the WHO Programme on Tobacco or Health, World Health Organization, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland.

WHO has selected the above logo for its programme on Tobacco or Health; it has also selected a colour scheme (red, brown and black) which will henceforth be used for the publication of *Tobacco Alert* and for other Tobacco or Health publications.

Source: World Health Organization. World Health Forum. Vol. 11, No. 1. 1990. p. 125. Reprinted with permission.

College Board Adopts Some SAT Changes

Changes in the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and Achievement Tests will broaden the tests' impact and usefulness in assessing high school students' ability to perform at the college level, higher-education officials said October 31, 1990.

The changes, endorsed by a 15-member commission, include revisions in the types of questions asked, addition of several new subjects--among them Asian languages and English as a Second Language--and inclusion of a 20-minute written essay in an optional section. The changes will be implemented in the College Board Admissions Testing Program (ATP), which includes SATs and Achievements, over the next few years.

According to College Board President Donald Stewart, the revised tests should benefit high school students and education professionals alike, because students "would be tested even more thoroughly on those skills and competencies that are important for performance in college.

"The SAT has been in almost constant evolution since it was first implemented in 1926," said Stewart at a press conference at the Sheraton Boston Hotel and Towers on Wednesday. "[It] has never been set in concrete. It has undergone tremendous revision [throughout] its 64-year life."

The press conference followed a special meeting of the College Board Trustees where they voted to accept changes in its Admissions Testing Program.

Further recommendations were made in a report, "Beyond Prediction," submitted by the Commission on New Possibilities for the Admissions Testing Program. The Commission, cochaired by Harvard University President Derek Bok and University of California President David Gardner, completed an 18-month study with the publication of the report.

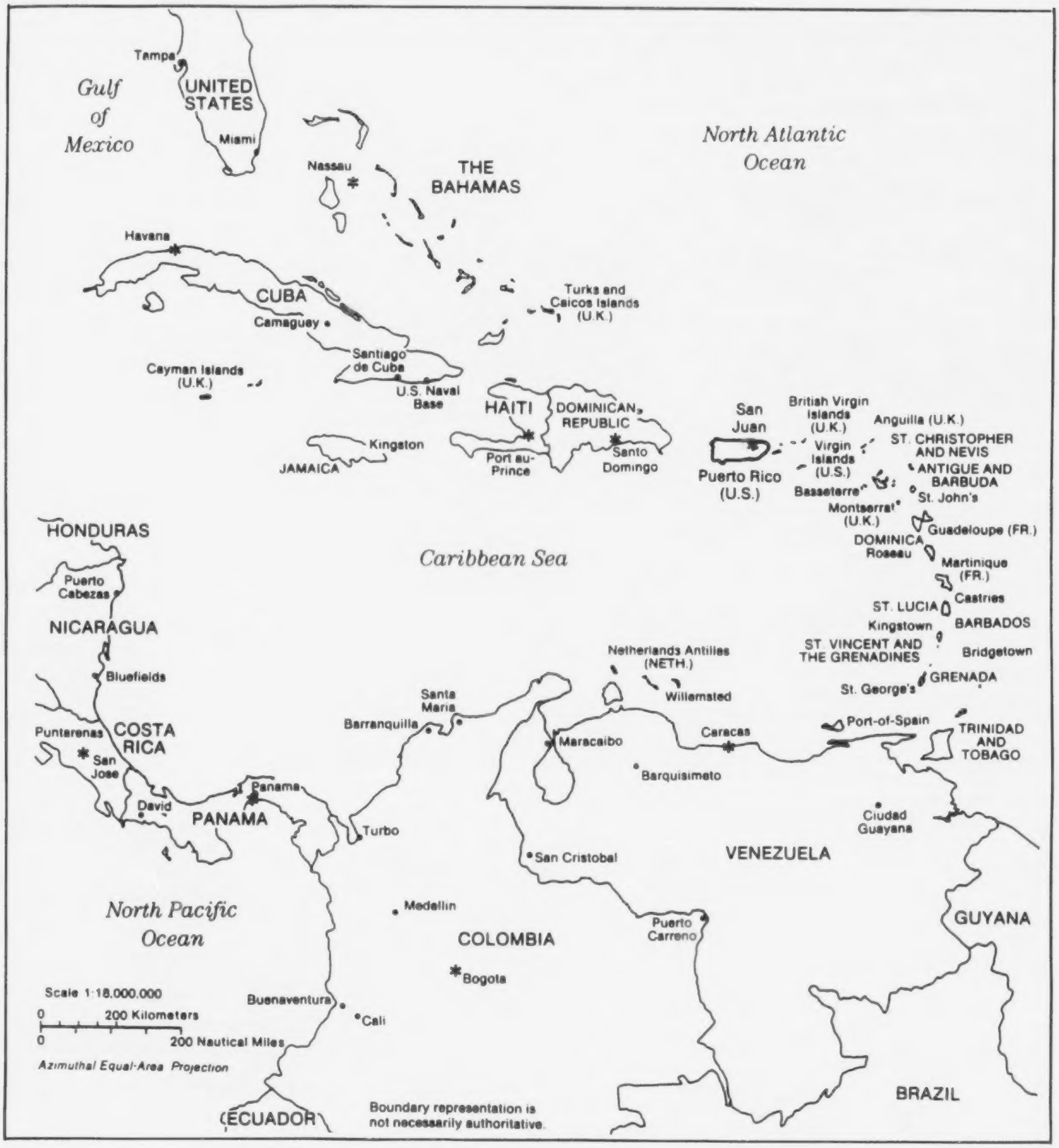
As approved by trustees, the revised Admissions Testing Program will have two major components: "SAT-I", or "reasoning" tests, and "SAT-II", or "subject" tests.

SAT-I, to be introduced in the spring of 1994, will comprise revised and expanded versions of the current SAT verbal and mathematical tests, including increased emphasis on critical reading. In addition, the math test will include a section devoted to "student-generated" answers (as opposed to muultiple-choice).

SAT-II, which will begin "phase-in" sometime next year, will cover much of the material currently covered by Achievement Tests. It will include subject matter tests, a new writing test, and other tests intended to help with course placement or in evaluating English proficiency. It will also introduce new subjects such as Japanese and Chinese languages.

Source: Harvard University Gazette, November 2, 1990. P.1.

MAP OF THE CARIBBEAN


Gulf of Mexico
Tampa
UNITED STATES
Miami
Nassau
THE BAHAMAS
North Atlantic Ocean
Havana
CUBA
Camaguey
Turks and Caicos Islands (U.K.)
Santiago de Cuba
Cayman Islands (U.K.)
U.S. Naval Base
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
Kingston
JAMAICA
Port au-Prince
Santo Domingo
San Juan
Puerto Rico (U.S.)
British Virgin Islands (U.K.)
Virgin Islands (U.S.)
Anguilla (U.K.)
ST. CHRISTOPHER AND NEVIS
ANTIGUE AND BARBUDA
Basseterre
St. John's
Montserrat (U.K.)
Guadeloupe (FR.)
DOMINICA
Roseau
Martinique (FR.)
Castries
ST. LUCIA
Kingstown
BARBADOS
ST. VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES
Bridgetown
GRENADA
St. George's
HONDURAS
Caribbean Sea
Puerto Cabezas
NICARAGUA
Bluefields
Netherlands Antilles (NETH.)
Willemsted
Santa Maria
Barranquilla
Port-of-Spain
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO
Caracas
Puntarenas
COSTA RICA
San Jose
Maracaibo
Barquisimeto
Panama
David
PANAMA
Turbo
Ciudad Guayana
San Cristobal
VENEZUELA
North Pacific Ocean
Medellin
COLOMBIA
Puerto Carreno
GUYANA
Bogota
Scale 1:18,000,000
0 200 Kilometers
0 200 Nautical Miles
Buenaventura
Cali
Azimuthal Equal-Area Projection
BRAZIL
ECUADOR
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Source: U.S. General Accounting Office. Puerto Rico: Information for Status Deliberations. March 1990. A Briefing Report. P.5.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

WHO IS BEING KILLED IN MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS?

Table II.5: Fatalities by Age and Gender

Gender	Age group	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Male														
	Under 16	3,336	3,183	3,065	3,123	2,943	2,802	2,465	2,269	2,251	2,257	2,274	2,391	2,460
	16-17	2,161	2,299	2,386	2,504	2,452	2,258	2,030	1,722	1,567	1,580	1,532	1,861	1,780
	18-20	4,781	4,895	5,221	5,387	5,546	5,430	4,775	4,268	3,901	3,990	3,592	3,918	3,690
	21-25	5,513	5,730	6,251	6,765	7,089	7,176	6,883	6,134	5,700	5,894	5,876	6,033	5,608
	26-50	9,941	9,932	10,566	11,730	12,352	12,646	12,808	11,291	11,011	11,425	11,370	12,233	12,449
	51-65	3,673	3,786	3,865	3,858	3,876	3,823	3,689	3,232	3,099	3,200	3,141	3,078	3,272
	Older than 65	3,135	3,087	3,082	3,161	3,097	3,033	3,039	2,790	2,831	3,012	2,997	3,175	3,262
	Unknown age	135	126	191	203	233	224	241	173	139	183	177	167	107
Total		**32,675**	**33,038**	**34,627**	**36,731**	**37,588**	**37,392**	**35,930**	**31,879**	**30,499**	**31,541**	**30,959**	**32,856**	**32,628**
Female														
	Under 16	1,899	1,921	1,966	1,893	1,789	1,700	1,515	1,438	1,336	1,367	1,438	1,448	1,444
	16-17	790	899	980	973	999	996	807	658	680	715	716	856	896
	18-20	1,240	1,437	1,514	1,608	1,536	1,496	1,461	1,334	1,264	1,242	1,237	1,233	1,199
	21-25	1,311	1,387	1,663	1,817	1,748	1,844	1,801	1,582	1,560	1,650	1,623	1,623	1,643
	26-50	3,065	3,101	3,309	3,545	3,750	3,876	3,819	3,538	3,633	3,872	3,827	3,933	4,384
	51-65	1,606	1,688	1,765	1,752	1,677	1,712	1,706	1,502	1,587	1,633	1,657	1,634	1,652
	Older than 65	1,865	1,984	1,951	1,917	1,913	1,965	1,954	1,942	1,977	2,171	2,289	2,399	2,489
	Unknown age	68	64	100	86	86	100	98	68	47	59	69	65	36
Total		**11,844**	**12,481**	**13,248**	**13,591**	**13,498**	**13,689**	**13,161**	**12,062**	**12,084**	**12,709**	**12,856**	**13,191**	**13,743**
Unknown		6	4	3	9	7	10	210	4	6	7	10	40	15
Total fatalities		**44,525**	**45,523**	**47,878**	**50,331**	**51,093**	**51,091**	**49,301**	**43,945**	**42,589**	**44,257**	**43,825**	**46,087**	**46,386**

Source: United States General Accounting Office. Highway Safety: Trends in Highway Fatalities, 1975-87. March 1990. Table II.5. P. 36.

continued

MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS continued

Table II.1: Fatal Accidents by Number of Fatalities Involved

Number of fatalities	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
One	35,019	35,451	37,819	39,870	40,608	40,747	39,853	35,356	34,382	36,000	35,562	37,207	37,526
Two	3,260	3,323	3,498	3,620	3,708	3,638	3,315	2,980	2,888	2,928	2,927	3,127	3,171
Three	633	668	637	657	667	654	620	530	499	504	513	525	534
Four	166	202	180	207	176	174	137	146	147	143	132	161	136
Five	44	61	48	58	37	44	53	48	37	34	36	47	45
More than five	30	41	29	20	27	27	21	32	23	22	25	23	23
Total accidents[a]	**39,161**	**39,747**	**42,211**	**44,433**	**45,223**	**45,284**	**44,000**	**39,092**	**37,976**	**39,631**	**39,196**	**41,090**	**41,436**

[a] Even though FARS is supposed to include only fatal accidents, the data files do include a few accidents for which zero fatalities were recorded. Therefore, these totals columns do not all add up.

Table II.2: Fatalities by Role

Role	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Driver	23,652	24,500	26,170	28,283	28,863	28,816	28,200	24,690	24,138	25,589	25,337	26,630	26,831
Passenger	12,169	12,497	12,873	13,108	12,964	12,972	12,055	10,867	10,595	10,586	10,619	11,498	11,618
Pedestrian	7,516	7,427	7,732	7,795	8,096	8,070	7,837	7,331	6,826	7,025	6,808	6,779	6,746
All others	1,188	1,099	1,103	1,145	1,170	1,233	1,209	1,057	1,030	1,057	1,061	1,180	1,191
Total fatalities	**44,525**	**45,523**	**47,878**	**50,331**	**51,093**	**51,091**	**49,301**	**43,945**	**42,589**	**44,527**	**43,825**	**46,087**	**46,386**

Table II.3: Fatal Accidents by Number of Vehicles Involved

Number of vehicles	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
None[a]	567	618	668	752	886	862	934	0	0	0	0	0	0
One	23,651	24,100	24,890	25,768	26,374	27,424	25,898	23,851	23,048	23,697	22,875	24,275	24,159
Two	13,375	13,465	14,866	15,894	16,013	15,301	15,283	13,573	13,420	14,066	14,249	14,568	14,909
Three	1,290	1,322	1,445	1,681	1,604	1,392	1,533	1,365	1,371	1,520	1,675	1,816	1,913
Four	210	186	241	248	254	215	263	226	223	243	287	311	317
Five	45	33	72	60	61	49	53	55	61	68	71	82	93
More than five	23	23	29	30	31	21	36	22	33	37	39	38	44
Total accidents	**39,161**	**39,747**	**42,211**	**44,433**	**45,223**	**45,284**	**44,000**	**39,092**	**37,976**	**39,631**	**39,196**	**41,090**	**41,435**

Source: United States General Accounting Office. Highway Safety: Trends in Highway Fatalities, 1975-87. March 1990. Tables II.1, II.2, II.3. Pp. 31 & 32.

RANKINGS OF PERCENT CHANGES FOR INDEXES FOR U.S. CONSUMER PRICES, DECEMBER 1989 VS. DECEMBER 1979

Item	Change (percent)
Hospital room	161.9
Elementary, high school tuition	154.5
Tobacco and smoking products	152.1
Prescription drugs	151.1
College tuition	149.0
School books and supplies	140.5
Other fresh fruits	138.0
Airline fares	130.0
Automobile insurance	119.9
Cereal	117.4
Potatoes	116.0
Physicians' services	114.4
Water/sewerage maintenance	105.5
Telephone – main station service	104.5
Dental services	103.4
Used cars	101.5
Oranges including tangerines	101.3
Other intercity public transportation	100.9
Internal and respiratory over-the-counter items	99.6
Intracity public transportation	99.2
Other automobile-related fees	92.6
Fresh/frozen fish,seafood	92.5
Lodging while out of town	91.7
Magazines, periodicals, and books	87.2
Other laundry, dry cleaning apparel	83.4
Other fresh vegetables	83.2
Cookies, fresh cakes and cupcakes	83.1
Lettuce	82.8
Admissions	80.2
Automotive body work	79.7
Automobile registration, licenses and inspection fees	77.9
Alcoholic beverages – away from home	77.4
Nonprescription medical equipment supplies	77.3
Newspapers	76.6
Other bakery products	75.8
Rent of dwelling	75.3
Tenants' insurance	74.3
Auto drive train, front end repair	70.8
Frozen vegetables	69.8
Other meals and snacks	69.6
Electricity	68.8
Auto power plant repair	67.9
Other toilet goods and personal care appliances	67.4
Laundry and cleaning products including soap	67.1
Other apparel services	66.4
Snacks	65.4
Sugar and artificial sweeteners	64.2
Postage	64.2
Fresh other breads/biscuits/rolls/muffins	63.8
Lunch	63.8
Seasonings/condiments/sauces/gravies	63.3
Maintenance and repair services	63.2
Utility (piped) gas	63.0
White bread	62.6
Beauty parlor service – female	62.3
Apples	61.9
Fruit juices and frozen fruit	61.3
Miscellaneous prepared foods including baby food	61.3
Dinners	61.2
Canned, packaged soup	61.1
Haircuts, other barber service – male	61.1
Frozen prepared foods	60.9
Cosmetics, bath and nail preparation and manicure and eye	60.3
Sweets including candy	59.1
Tomatoes	58.5
Miscellaneous household products	57.8
Appliance and furniture repair	56.4
Pet expense	56.2
Fresh/frozen chicken parts	55.9
Automobile maintenance and servicing	55.5
Pork chops	55.4
Other processed vegetables	54.8
Floor and window coverings	54.8
Ice cream, related products	54.3
Fresh whole chicken	52.7
Photo supplies, equipment	52.3
Household paper products and stationery	51.5
Cheese	51.1
Bedroom furniture	50.6
Men's furnishings and specialty	50.1
Beer and ale at home	49.3
Other beef and veal	48.8
Bacon	47.5
Canned and dried fruits	47.1
Other noncarbonated drinks	46.9
Rice, pasta, cornmeal	45.6
Textile housefurnishings	45.5
Other pork including sausage	45.1
New cars	44.0
Alcoholic beverages at home	43.3
Women's nightwear, underwear, hosiery, accessories	42.7
Motor oil, coolant, and others	42.4
Infants', toddlers' apparel	42.0
Bananas	41.6
Toys, hobbies, and music equipment	41.6
Fats and oils	41.1
Distilled spirits at home	40.3
Men's footwear	39.4
Canned fish, seafood	39.2
Eggs	39.1
Ham	38.5
Tableware, serving pieces, nonelectrical kitchenware	38.4
Men's shirts	38.4
Sport vehicles including bicycles	38.2
Carbonated drinks	37.8
Other dairy products including butter	37.1
Other maintenance and repair commodities	37.1
Other fresh milk and cream	36.8
Automobile finance charges	36.7
Fresh whole milk	36.4
Clocks, lamps, and decorator items	36.2
Sirloin steak	35.0
Men's suits, sport coats, coats and jackets	34.5
Boys' and girls' footwear	34.4
Laundry equipment	32.5
Other poultry	31.9
Wine at home	31.8
Other meats	31.2
Other furniture	30.6
Men's dungarees, jeans, trousers	30.2
Chuck roast	29.5
Living room chairs, tables	29.0
Boys' apparel	27.8
Sofas	27.7
Other sporting goods	27.5
Refrigerator, home freezer	26.7
Round steak	23.9
Women's dresses	23.0
Lawn equipment, power tools, and other hardware	22.7
Girls' apparel	21.7
Women's footwear	18.7
Women's separates and sportswear	17.9
Round roast	15.9
Other parts and equipment	15.7
Fuel oil	15.7
Telephone intrastate toll calls	11.5
Tires	10.5
Ground beef excluding canned	7.9
Women's coats and jackets	6.5
Motor fuel	3.5
Women's suits	2.5
Coffee	2.1
Sound equipment	–2.5
Telephone interstate toll calls	–14.7
Television	–27.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review, August 1990. Pp. 23-25.

OPINION

WINNING WITHOUT WAR

The following article was written by Roger Fisher, a professor of law at Harvard University and director of the Harvard Negotiation Project (see World Eagle, December 1990, pages 15 & 16). He is also the co-author of "Getting to YES: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In." Reprinted here with permission, this article appeared in The Boston Sunday Globe, November 4, 1990, page A17, with the headline used above and the subheadline: A Plan For Bringing Saddam To The Table.

Sanctions are not persuading Saddam Hussein to withdraw from Kuwait because the current situation – as bad as it may be – is better for him than the mess he would be in if he withdrew.

On the other hand, for President Bush to negotiate now with Saddam Hussein might suggest that the United States is prepared to pay a ransom for the hostages, a price for Iraq's withdrawal, or both. For good reason, we do not want Iraq to benefit from its aggression.

In these circumstances, the world marches toward a bloody war that could be terrible for everyone – militarily, economically and politically.

But there are potential agreements that would be far better for all than a war. Yet how do we reach one? By what process can we negotiate an outcome better than war for each of the major parties? That is today's challenge.

The United Nations demand for "unconditional surrender" does not preclude the UN from deciding what will happen after withdrawal. To refuse dialogue prevents an explanation of legitimate interests that might then be met. It also prevents the world from convincing Saddam Hussein that he would be better off getting out of Kuwait.

A possible successful approach

An approach designed to maximize the chance of success without war could include the following elements:

An active third party. The chance for an acceptable solution will be enhanced if some third party promptly volunteers and sets to work. It will be far easier for a third party to draft a balanced solution than for either Iraq or the United States to do so. Despite the reluctance of governments to "meddle," and the reasonable fear that, like King Hussein of Jordan, they will be criticized for doing so, the risk of a disastrous war is so high that some responsible government, such as France, Canada, Colombia or Finland, should promptly get to work on drafting a possible way out.

Focus on a Security Council resolution. Since the UN Security Council action called for sanctions, the Security Council is the best one to decide when they should end. And a draft resolution provides a handy framework for developing a package that would fairly meet the legitimate interests of both Iraq and the United Nations.

Rely on a fair standard applicable to both sides. It will be easier for the United States and Iraq to defer to a legitimate principle of international law than for either to defer to the other. Ten years ago, the conflict over American hostages held in Iran was settled through negotiations mediated in Algeria in which each government accepted the principle that neither should get more than that to which it was entitled under international law. What each was entitled to was the subject of negotiation.

The same standard should be applied here. Iraq should not profit from its invasion of Kuwait. On the other hand, Iraq is entitled under the United Nations charter to have disputes over the Ramaila oil field, the offshore islands and financial obligations settled by fair procedures such as mediation or arbitration.

UN, Iraqi entitlements

The United Nations is entitled to have Iraq withdraw from Kuwait and release foreign nationals. And until that happens, it is entitled to maintain sanctions indefinitely to make sure that Iraq does not profit from its seizure of Kuwaiti oil.

On the other hand, Iraq's illegal conduct does not entitle the United Nations to overthrow Iraq's government or destroy its military potential. As President Bush has been insisting, might does not make right. In the absence of a new and explicit Security Council resolution, the United States is certainly not entitled unilaterally to decide that Iraq is such a threat to the peace that the United States can lawfullly destroy Iraq's army and overthrow its government.

We knew what kind of government Iraq had when it invaded Iran 10 years ago. We knew its willingness to use poison gas when it acted against the Kurds. Settling Kuwait on the basis of neither side getting more than that to which it is entitled will not solve everything. But neither would a war.

Use a better process than "compromise." A solution need not simply split the difference between the positions of two sides. Through consultation, a third party can develop a proposal that meets legitimate inter-

continued →

WITHOUT WAR continued

ests but does not mean giving in or rewarding aggression.

Framework for a settlement. The starting draft for a potential Security Council resolution could, for example, contain the following points:

1. *Withdrawal.* Renews the request that Iraq withdraw from Kuwait and release foreign nationals.

2. *End Sanctions.* Upon Iraq's withdrawal from Kuwait and release of foreign nationals, sanctions are to stop and no military action is to be taken against Iraq so long as its withdrawal is proceeding on plan.

3. *Guarantees to Iraq.* To replace the foreign "shield" and to assure Iraq that it will not be attacked by Israel or others, Soviet and US troops under the UN flag shall be stationed in Iraq if its government so desires.

4. *Arab presence in Kuwait.* A small Arab peace-keeping force under UN flag shall replace Iraqi forces in Kuwait pending reestablishment of security by Kuwaiti police.

5. *Arms-control negotiations.* The United Nations invites Iraq, Saudi Arabia and the United States to negotiate arms reductions and arms-control measures to establish stability in the area and permit US and other forces to withdraw from Saudi Arabia.

6. *Territorial issues.* The president of Algeria is asked to mediate and if necessary arbitrate on a fair and equitable basis issues outstanding between Kuwait and Iraq over the Ramaila oil field and the offshore islands.

7. *Financial obligations and claims.* The World Bank is asked to establish a procedure for negotiating a settlement of all financial claims between Iraq and Kuwait or arising from the recent events.

8. *Democratization.* The United Nations welcomes assurances of Kuwait and Iraq that each wants to bring to its people the benefits of democracy and constitutional protection consistent with the ideals and aspirations of their Moslem and Arab peoples.

9. *Palestinian-Israeli questions.* The Security Council requests its five permanent members to consider as a separate matter what measures might be appropriate to assure compliance with other Security Council resolutions, particularly those relating to Israeli-Palestinian differences.

10. *Continuing blockade.* Pending Iraq's withdrawal from Kuwait, the blockade on Iraq's oil sales shall continue indefinitely.

Such an approach may be difficult and it may take time, but it would prevent Iraq's benefiting from its aggression and is far easier and far more promising than a war. ❖

VOLUME XIV CUMULATIVE INDEX *(For the six issues September 1990-February 1991.)*

Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

AFRICA: Languages of Sub-Saharan a., S28-29. Record of and Prospects for U.S. Trade with Sub-Saharan a., F18-21.
AGRICULTURE: Global Shares of Key U.S. Commodities, D17. A Helpful Overview of U.S. Farm Policies, D18. Cotton, Ja28-29. Data for the Countries of The Far East, F8-9.
AID: U.S. Economic and Military Assistance Given, 1946-1949, Ja26-27.
AIDS: Number of Cases in U.S., by State (P), F27.
ALTERNATIVE FUELS: The Hunt to Replace Gasoline, Ja11-12.
ANIMALS: In (West) Germany to be Called "Fellow Creatures" (P), D30.
APARTHEID: Map: Disparities of a. in South Africa, O32.
ARMS CONTROL: Major Agreements Since World War II Involving U.S., Ja30.
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BALANCE OF TRADE: U.S., 1954-1989, O15.
BEEF: Leading Nations in Per Capita Consumption (P), O29.
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Three Errors in January 1991 WORLDQUIZ

Subscriber Reverend Don Conrad in Lawrence KS 66044 has written to tell us that (Question #4) a trillion is a million times a million and that (Questions #60-#62) MD does not border KY but MO does (along with WV, VA, TN, IL, IN, and OH).

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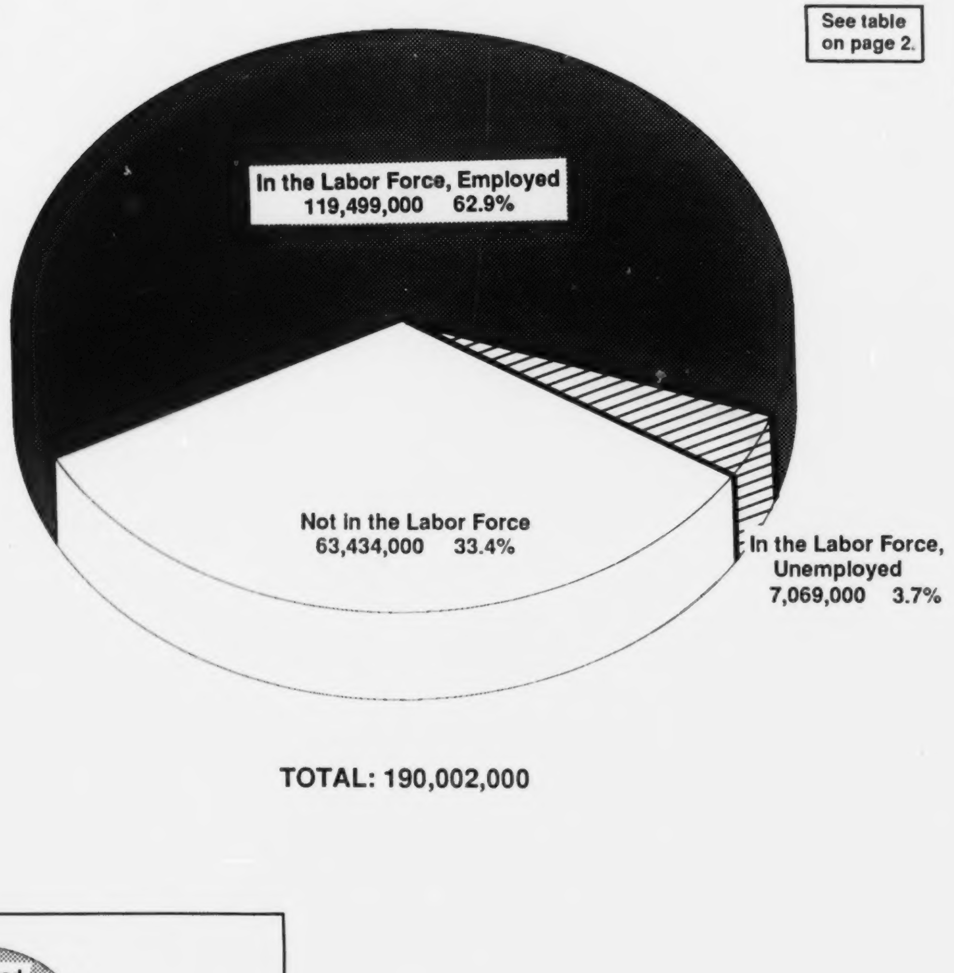
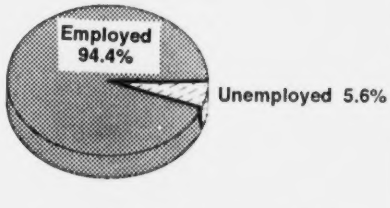
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE 190 MILLION OF US WHO ARE 16 YEARS AND OVER AND NONINSTITUTIONALIZED

-- September 1990 data, seasonally adjusted --

See table on page 2.



TOTAL: 190,002,000



Those in the Labor Force: 126,568,000

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings, October 1990. Table A-1. Page 7. (Page 2 of this issue of World Eagle.)

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE U.S. NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION 16 YEARS AND OVER, 1956 TO DATE

See chart on page 1.

(Numbers in thousands)

Year and month	Noninstitutional population	Labor force									Not in labor force
		Number	Percent of population	Employed					Unemployed		
				Total	Resident Armed Forces	Civilian			Number	Percent of labor force	
						Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries			
	Annual averages										
1956	112,919	68,517	60.7	65,764	1,965	63,799	6,283	57,514	2,750	4.0	44,402
1957	114,213	68,877	60.3	66,019	1,948	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.2	45,336
1958	115,574	69,486	60.1	64,883	1,847	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.6	46,088
1959	117,117	70,157	59.9	66,418	1,788	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.3	46,960
1960[1]	119,106	71,489	60.0	67,639	1,861	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.4	47,617
1961	120,671	72,359	60.0	67,646	1,900	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.5	48,312
1962[1]	122,214	72,675	59.5	68,763	2,061	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.4	49 539
1963	124,422	73,839	59.3	69,768	2,006	67,762	4,687	63,076	4,070	5.5	50,583
1964	126,503	75,109	59.4	71,323	2,018	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.0	51,394
1965	128,459	76,401	59.5	73,034	1,946	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.4	52,058
1966	130,180	77,892	59.8	75,017	2,122	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.7	52,288
1967	132,092	79,565	60.2	76,590	2,218	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.7	52,527
1968	134,281	80,990	60.3	78,173	2,253	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.5	53,291
1969	136,573	82,972	60.8	80,140	2,238	77,902	3,606	74,296	2,832	3.4	53,602
1970	139,203	84,889	61.0	80,796	2,118	78,678	3,463	75,215	4,093	4.8	54,315
1971	142,189	86,355	60.7	81,340	1,973	79,367	3,394	75,972	5,016	5.8	55,834
1972[1]	145,939	88,847	60.9	83,966	1,813	82,153	3,484	78,669	4,882	5.5	57,091
1973[1]	148,870	91,203	61.3	86,838	1,774	85,064	3,470	81,594	4,365	4.8	57,667
1974	151,841	93,670	61.7	88,515	1,721	86,794	3,515	83,279	5,156	5.5	58,171
1975	154,831	95,453	61.6	87,524	1,678	85,846	3,408	82,438	7,929	8.3	59,377
1976	157,818	97,826	62.0	90,420	1,668	88,752	3,331	85,421	7,406	7.6	59,991
1977	160,689	100,665	62.6	93,673	1,656	92,017	3,283	88,734	6,991	6.9	60,025
1978[1]	163,541	103,882	63.5	97,679	1,631	96,048	3,387	92,661	6,202	6.0	59,659
1979	166,460	106,559	64.0	100,421	1,597	98,824	3,347	95,477	6,137	5.8	59,900
1980	169,349	108,544	64.1	100,907	1,604	99,303	3,364	95,938	7,637	7.0	60,806
1981	171,775	110,315	64.2	102,042	1,645	100,397	3,368	97,030	8,273	7.5	61,460
1982	173,939	111,872	64.3	101,194	1,668	99,526	3,401	96,125	10,678	9.5	62,067
1983	175,891	113,226	64.4	102,510	1,676	100,834	3,383	97,450	10,717	9.5	62,665
1984	178,080	115,241	64.7	106,702	1,697	105,005	3,321	101,685	8,539	7.4	62,839
1985	179,912	117,167	65.1	108,856	1,706	107,150	3,179	103,971	8,312	7.1	62,744
1986[1]	182,293	119,540	65.6	111,303	1,706	109,597	3,163	106,434	8,237	6.9	62,752
1987	184,490	121,602	65.9	114,177	1,737	112,440	3,208	109,232	7,425	6.1	62,888
1988	186,322	123,378	66.2	116,677	1,709	114,968	3,169	111,800	6,701	5.4	62,944
1989	188,081	125,557	66.8	119,030	1,688	117,342	3.199	114,142	6,528	5.2	62,523
	Monthly data, seasonally adjusted[2]										
1989:											
September	188,428	125,725	66.7	119,121	1,702	117,419	3,219	114,200	6,604	5.3	62,703
October	188,580	125,857	66.7	119,294	1,709	117,585	3,197	114,388	6,563	5.2	62,723
November	188,721	126,192	66.9	119,540	1,704	117,836	3,160	114,676	6,652	5.3	62,529
December	188,865	126,246	66.8	119,588	1,700	117,888	3,197	114,691	6,658	5.3	62,619
1990:											
January	188,990	126,094	66.7	119,560	1,697	117,863	3,134	114,728	6,535	5.2	62,896
February	189,090	126,308	66.8	119,713	1,678	118,035	3,079	114,957	6,594	5.2	62,782
March	189,198	126,498	66.9	120,003	1,669	118,334	3,200	115,133	6,495	5.1	62,700
April	189,326	126,543	66.8	119,773	1,657	118,116	3,133	114,983	6,770	5.3	62,783
May	189,467	126,643	66.8	119,989	1,639	118,350	3,305	115,045	6,653	5.3	62,824
June	189,607	126,466	66.7	120,019	1,630	118,389	3,348	115,041	6,447	5.1	63,141
July	189,763	126,394	66.6	119,580	1,627	117,953	3,085	114,867	6,814	5.4	63,369
August	189,901	126,300	66.5	119,298	1,640	117,658	3,137	114,521	7,003	5.5	63,601
September	190,002	126,568	66.6	119,499	1,601	117,898	3,181	114,717	7,069	5.6	63,434

[1] Not strictly comparable with prior years. For an explanation, see "Historical Comparability" under the Household Data section of the Explanatory Notes.

[2] The population and Armed Forces figures are not adjusted for seasonal variation.

NOTE: Revisions of seasonally adjusted monthly and quarterly data (shown in tables A-1 through A-3 and A-32 through A-53) for the most recent 5-year period are made at the end of each calendar year.

* Discouraged Workers are not counted within the Labor Force. The number of discouraged workers -- persons who report they want to work but have not looked for jobs because they believed that none was available -- totaled 835,000 in the third quarter of 1990, after seasonal adjustment, essentially unchanged from the previous quarter.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings, October 1990. Table A-1. Page 7.

OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED PERSONS 15 YEARS AND OVER, BY SEX AND URBAN-RURAL RESIDENCE: 1989

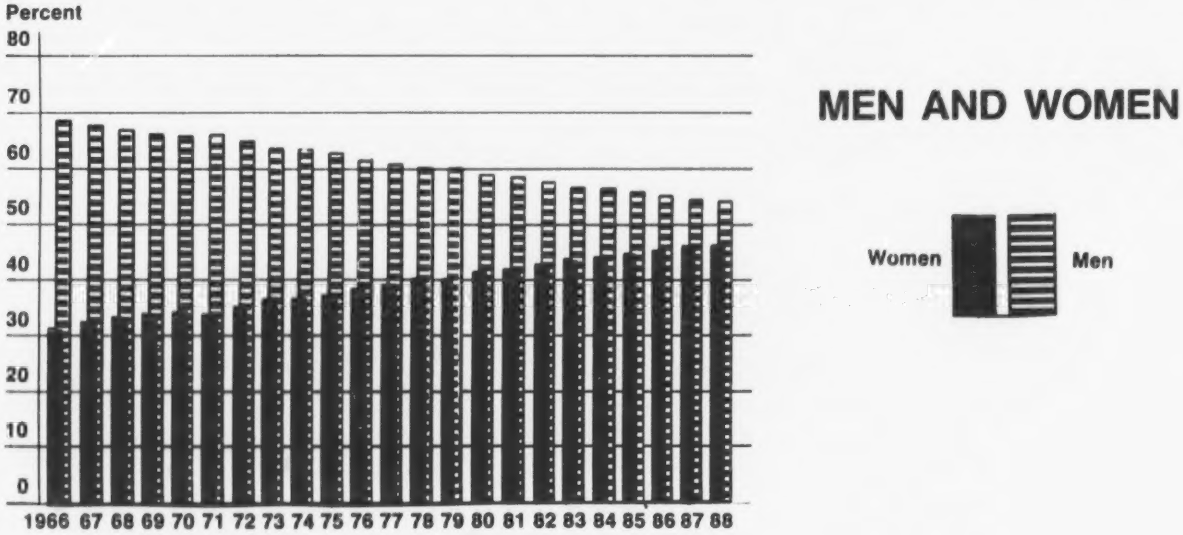
(Current Population Survey annual averages. Numbers in thousands)

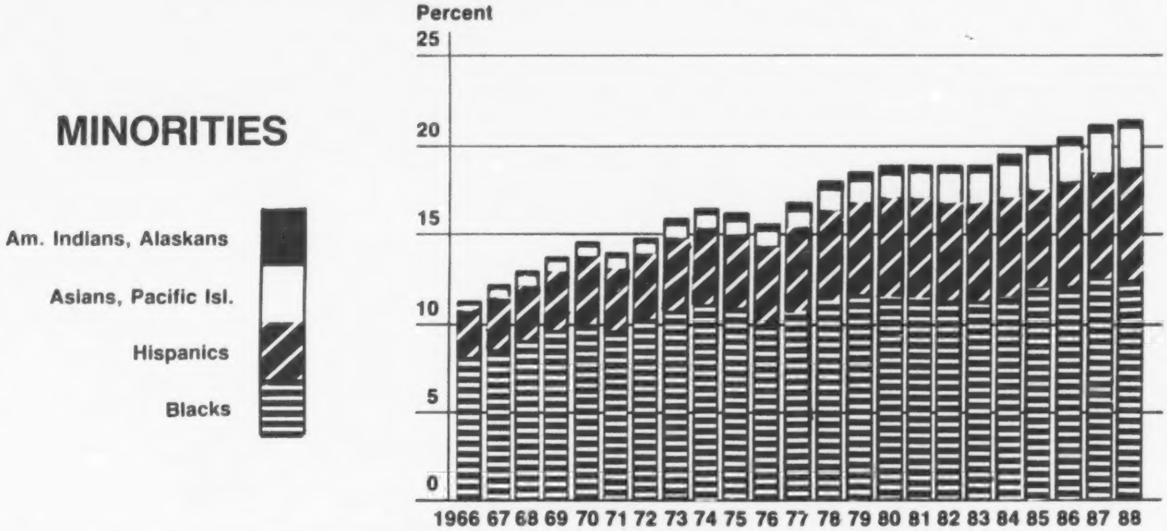
Sex and occupation	Total	Urban	Rural	Rural nonfarm	Rural farm	Percent distribution				
						Total	Urban	Rural	Rural nonfarm	Rural farm
Both sexes	117,863	86,379	31,485	28,883	2,602	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Farming, forestry, and fishing	3,487	1,169	2,318	1,133	1,185	3.0	1.4	7.4	3.9	45.5
Farm operators and managers	1,270	122	1,148	280	868	1.1	0.1	3.6	1.0	33.4
Farm workers and related occupations	2,040	998	1,042	729	313	1.7	1.2	3.3	2.5	12.0
Managerial and professional specialty	30,407	23,877	6,531	6,228	303	25.8	27.6	20.7	21.6	11.6
Technical, sales, and administrative support	36,250	28,000	8,250	7,800	450	30.8	32.4	26.2	27.0	17.3
Service	15,796	11,925	3,871	3,667	204	13.4	13.8	12.3	12.7	7.8
Precision, production, craft, and repair	13,830	9,326	4,504	4,318	186	11.7	10.8	14.3	14.9	7.1
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	18,094	12,082	6,011	5,738	273	15.4	14.0	19.1	19.9	10.5
Male	64,594	46,684	17,911	16,319	1,592	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Farming, forestry, and fishing	2,911	1,011	1,900	954	946	4.5	2.2	10.6	5.8	59.4
Farm operators and managers	1,075	103	972	241	731	1.7	0.2	5.4	1.5	45.9
Farm workers and related occupations	1,670	860	810	599	211	2.6	1.8	4.5	3.7	13.3
Managerial and professional specialty	16,655	13,086	3,569	3,446	123	25.8	28.0	19.9	21.1	7.7
Technical, sales, and administrative support	12,745	10,057	2,688	2,572	116	19.7	21.5	15.0	15.8	7.3
Service	6,255	4,988	1,267	1,222	45	9.7	10.7	7.1	7.5	2.8
Precision, production, craft, and repair	12,638	8,510	4,129	3,963	166	19.6	18.2	23.1	24.3	10.4
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	13,390	9,033	4,357	4,161	196	20.7	19.3	24.3	25.5	12.3
Female	53,269	39,695	13,574	12,564	1,010	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Farming, forestry, and fishing	576	158	419	179	240	1.1	0.4	3.1	1.4	23.8
Farm operators and managers	195	19	177	39	138	0.4	-	1.3	0.3	13.7
Farm workers and related occupations	369	138	231	129	102	0.7	0.3	1.7	1.0	10.1
Managerial and professional specialty	13,752	10,791	2,961	2,782	179	25.8	27.2	21.8	22.1	17.7
Technical, sales, and administrative support	23,505	17,943	5,562	5,227	335	44.1	45.2	41.0	41.6	33.2
Service	9,541	6,937	2,604	2,445	159	17.9	17.5	19.2	19.5	15.7
Precision, production, craft, and repair	1,191	817	375	355	20	2.2	2.1	2.8	2.8	2.0
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	4,704	3,050	1,655	1,577	78	8.8	7.7	12.2	12.6	7.7

-Represents zero or rounds to zero.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 446. Residents of Farms and Rural Areas: 1989. October 1990. Table 14. P.16.

PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYMENT PARTICIPATION RATES OF MINORITIES AND WOMEN, U.S. SUMMARY: 1966-1988


MEN AND WOMEN


MINORITIES

During the last two decades:

- Women have substantially increased their share of private sector employment, while the participation rate of men has consistently declined. In 1988, women held about 46% of all private sector jobs.
- Each minority group has significantly increased its participation in private sector employment, with Asian Americans experiencing the most rapid rate of growth (an 8-fold increase). As of 1988, minorities held more than 1 out of every 5 private sector jobs.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. Indicators of Equal Employment Opportunity -- Status and Trends. January 1990 (received June 1990). P. ix.

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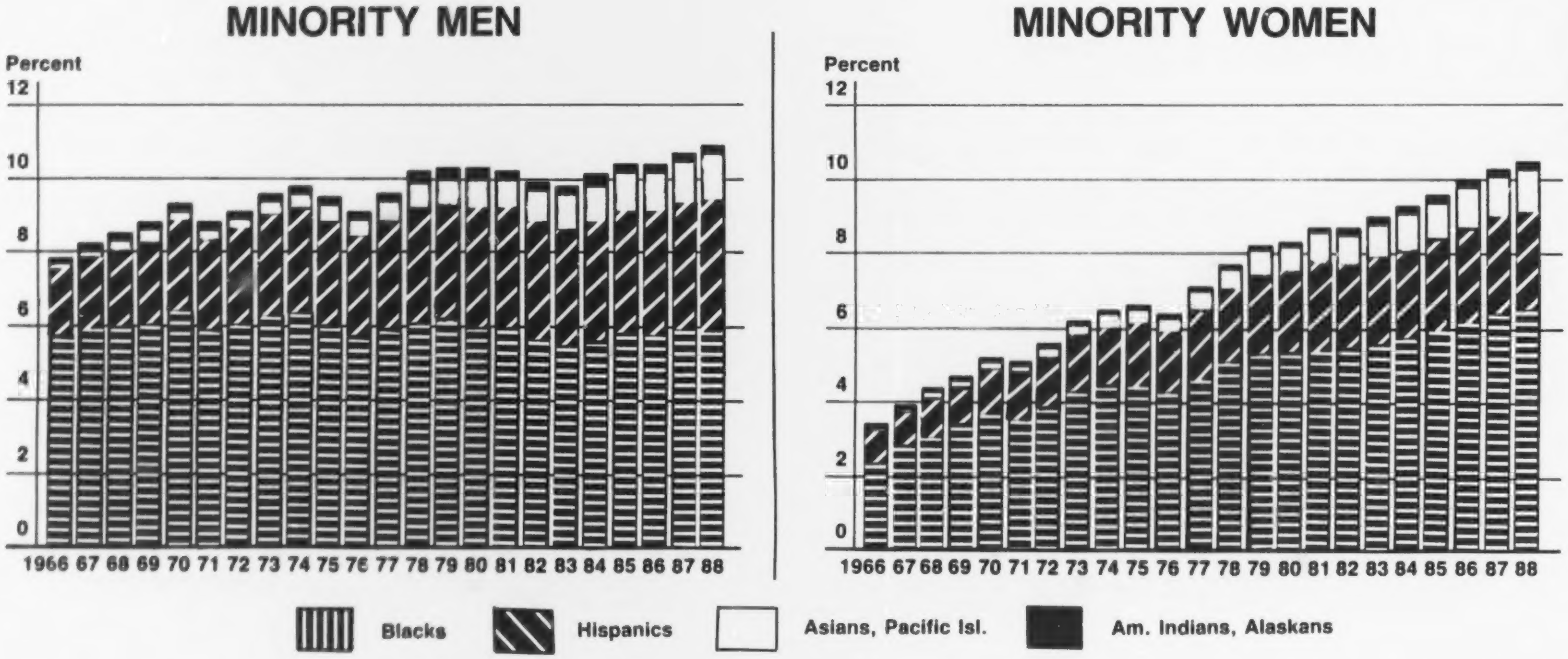
PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYMENT PARTICIPATION RATES OF MINORITY MEN AND WOMEN, U.S. SUMMARY: 1966-1988



During the last twenty years:

- Each minority group, except black men, has increased its employment participation in the private sector.
- The employment participation rate for black women has increased about two and one-half times, so that their 1988 participation rate (6.5%) slightly exceeded that of black men (5.9%).
- Hispanic women continued to have employment participation rates which significantly lag behind their male counterparts.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. Indicators of Equal Employment Opportunity -- Status and Trends. January 1990 (received June 1990). P. xi.

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UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN NINE COUNTRIES, 1972-1990

-- Civilian Labor Force Basis, Approximating U.S. Concepts, Seasonally Adjusted --

PERIOD	UNITED STATES	CANADA	AUS-TRALIA	JAPAN	FRANCE	GERMANY	ITALY (1)(2)	SWEDEN	UNITED KINGDOM
1972	5.6	6.2	2.6	1.4	2.9	0.7	3.8	2.7	4.2
1973	4.9	5.5	2.3	1.3	2.8	0.7	3.7	2.5	3.2
1974	5.6	5.3	2.7	1.4	2.9	1.6	3.1	2.0	3.1
1975	8.5	6.9	4.9	1.9	4.1	3.4	3.4	1.6	4.6
1976	7.7	7.1	4.8	2.0	4.5	3.4	3.9	1.6	5.9
1977	7.1	8.1	5.6	2.0	5.1	3.4	4.1	1.8	6.4
1978	6.1	8.3	6.3	2.3	5.3	3.3	4.1	2.2	6.3
1979	5.8	7.4	6.3	2.1	6.0	2.9	4.4	2.1	5.4
1980	7.1	7.5	6.1	2.0	6.4	2.8	4.4	2.0	7.0
1981	7.6	7.5	5.8	2.2	7.6	4.0	4.9	2.5	10.5
1982	9.7	11.0	7.2	2.4	8.3	5.6	5.4	3.1	11.3
1983	9.6	11.8	10.0	2.7	8.5	(3)6.9	5.9	3.5	11.8
1984	7.5	11.2	9.0	2.8	10.0	7.1	5.9	3.1	11.8
1985	7.2	10.5	8.3	2.6	10.4	7.2	6.0	2.8	11.2
1986	7.0	9.5	8.1	2.8	10.6	6.6	(3)7.5	2.6	11.2
1987	6.2	8.8	8.1	2.9	10.7	6.3	7.9	(3)1.9	10.3
1988	5.5	7.8	7.2	2.5	10.2	6.3P	7.9P	1.6	8.6
1989	5.3	7.5	6.2	2.3	9.7	5.7P	7.8P	1.3	7.0P
I	5.2	7.5	6.6	2.4	9.8	5.9	7.8	1.4	7.6
II	5.3	7.6	6.1	2.3	9.7	5.7	8.0	1.3	7.2
III	5.3	7.4	6.1	2.3	9.7	5.7	7.8	1.3	6.7
IV	5.3	7.6	5.9	2.2	9.6	5.6	7.7	1.4	6.4
1990							7.0P		
I	5.2	7.6	6.2	2.1	9.5	5.4	7.4	1.4	6.3
II	5.3	7.4	6.4	2.1	9.5	5.3	6.8	1.3	6.2
III	5.6	8.2	7.2	2.1	9.5	5.2	7.0	1.6	6.4
IV							7.0		
SEPTEMBER	5.7	8.4	7.4	2.2	9.5	5.1		1.6	6.4
OCTOBER	5.7	8.8	7.6	2.3	9.6	5.0	7.0	1.7	6.6
NOVEMBER	5.9	9.1	8.2		9.7	4.8		2.0	6.8

R = REVISED.   P = PRELIMINARY.

(1) QUARTERLY RATES ARE FOR THE FIRST MONTH OF THE QUARTER. (2) MANY ITALIANS REPORTED AS UNEMPLOYED DID NOT ACTIVELY SEEK WORK IN THE PAST 30 DAYS, AND THEY HAVE BEEN EXCLUDED FOR COMPARABILITY WITH U.S. CONCEPTS. INCLUSION OF SUCH PERSONS WOULD ABOUT DOUBLE THE ITALIAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE IN 1985 AND EARLIER YEARS AND INCREASE IT TO 11-12 PERCENT IN 1986-1989. (3) BREAK IN SERIES. BASED ON THE FORMER SERIES, THE GERMAN RATE FOR 1983 WAS 7.4 PERCENT AND THE ITALIAN RATE FOR 1986 WAS 6.3 PERCENT. FOR SWEDEN, THE 1986 RATE BASED ON THE NEW SERIES WAS 2.2 PERCENT.

NOTE: QUARTERLY AND MONTHLY FIGURES FOR FRANCE, GERMANY, AND THE UNITED KINGDOM ARE CALCULATED BY APPLYING ANNUAL ADJUSTMENT FACTORS TO CURRENT PUBLISHED DATA AND THEREFORE SHOULD BE VIEWED AS LESS PRECISE INDICATORS OF UNEMPLOYMENT UNDER U.S. CONCEPTS THAN THE ANNUAL FIGURES. FOR FURTHER QUALIFICATIONS AND HISTORICAL DATA, SEE "COMPARATIVE LABOR FORCE STATISTICS FOR 10 COUNTRIES, 1959-1989", NOVEMBER 1990.

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JANUARY 1991.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1991.

THE 20 FASTEST GROWING INDUSTRIES FROM 1979 TO 1989

[Numbers in thousands]

SIC	Rank	Industry	Employees		Change	
			1979	1989	Number	Percent
737	1	Computer and data-processing services	270.8	763.4	492.6	181.9
808	2	Outpatient care facilities[1]	113.0	317.3	204.3	180.8
736	3	Personnel supply services	526.5	1,351.2	824.7	156.6
616	4	Mortgage bankers and brokers[1]	62.3	148.8	86.5	138.8
824	5	Correspondence and vocational schools[1]	44.9	105.1	60.2	134.1
615	6	Business credit institutions[1]	30.2	67.1	36.9	122.2
832	7	Individual and family services[1]	161.0	353.1	192.1	119.3
733	8	Mailing, reproduction, stenographic	113.3	245.1	131.8	116.3
836	9	Residential care[1]	201.1	426.4	225.3	112.0
495	10	Sanitary services	47.0	96.8	49.8	106.0
376	11	Guided missiles, space vehicles, parts	101.5	207.8	106.3	104.7
458	12	Air transportation services[1]	47.3	96.8	49.5	104.7
621	13	Security brokers and dealers	164.7	336.5	171.8	104.3
81	14	Legal services	459.9	896.3	436.4	94.9
67	15	Holding and other investment offices	111.2	212.0	100.8	90.6
274	16	Miscellaneous publishing	46.1	82.8	36.7	79.6
739	17	Miscellaneous business services[1]	1,277.5	2,256.5	979.0	76.6
731	18	Advertising	145.9	256.4	110.5	75.7
893	19	Accounting, auditing, and bookkeeping	299.0	520.4	221.4	74.0
411	20	Local and suburban transportation	75.8	130.3	54.5	71.9

[1] Although published monthly estimates begin in 1982, the previously unpublished annual average for 1979 was computed and used for these comparisons.

NOTE: Figures shown for 1979 and 1989 are annual averages from the CES program. Industries are compared at the three-digit Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) level, unless the CES program only publishes monthly estimates at the two-digit level.

THE 20 MOST RAPIDLY DECLINING INDUSTRIES FROM 1979 TO 1989

[Numbers in thousands]

SIC	Rank	Industry	Employees		Change	
			1979	1989	Number	Percent
101	1	Iron ores	24.8	9.3	−15.5	−62.5
66	2	Combined real estate, insurance, etc.	22.8	9.0	−13.8	−60.5
387	3	Watches, clocks, and watchcases	27.7	11.3	−16.4	−59.2
102	4	Copper ores	33.3	14.1	−19.2	−57.7
331	5	Blast furnaces and basic steel products	570.5	274.3	−296.2	−51.9
302	6	Rubber and plastics footwear	22.7	11.0	−11.7	−51.5
317	7	Handbags and personal leather goods	32.8	16.1	−16.7	−50.9
374	8	Railroad equipment	74.3	39.0	−35.3	−47.5
40	9	Railroad transportation	556.3	294.8	−261.5	−47.0
314	10	Footwear, except rubber	148.9	79.6	−69.3	−46.5
12	11	Bituminous coal and lignite mining	255.6	139.3	−116.3	−45.5
393	12	Musical instruments	24.0	13.1	−10.9	−45.4
153	13	Operative builders	83.3	45.7	−37.6	−45.1
412	14	Taxicabs	59.6	35.1	−24.5	−41.1
324	15	Cement, hydraulic	32.7	19.4	−13.3	−40.7
332	16	Iron and steel foundries	240.7	143.6	−97.1	−40.3
352	17	Farm and garden machinery	182.3	109.8	−72.5	−39.8
353	18	Construction and related machinery	382.8	237.0	−145.8	−38.1
333	19	Primary nonferrous metals	72.5	45.4	−27.1	−37.4
221	20	Weaving mills, cotton	150.9	95.9	−55.0	−36.4

NOTE: Figures shown for 1979 and 1989 are annual averages from the CES program. Industries are compared at the three-digit Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) level, unless the CES program only publishes monthly estimates at the two-digit level.

Just over three-fourths of all jobs are now in the service sector

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Monthly Labor Review, September 1990. Tables 3 & 4. Pp. 10 & 11.

Rankings of States by Total Population, Total Number of Students, Number of Students in First Grade, and Number of Regular High School Graduates: School Year 1987-88

Total population (in thousands)		Number of students		First grade students		Regular high school graduate 1986–87	
State	Total	State	Total	State	Total	State	Total
California	27,663	California	4,489,322	California	393,533	California	237,414
New York	17,825	Texas	3,236,787	Texas	291,838	Texas	168,430
Texas	16,789	New York	2,594,070	New York	207,689	New York	163,765
Florida	12,023	Illinois	1,811,446	Ohio	151,203	Ohio	124,923
Pennsylvania	11,936	Ohio	1,793,411	Florida	143,854	Pennsylvania	121,219
Illinois	11,582	Pennsylvania	1,668,542	Illinois	142,619	Illinois	116,075
Ohio	10,784	Florida	1,664 774	Pennsylvania	136,411	Florida	82,184
Michigan	9,200	Michigan	1,606,344	Michigan	126,380	New Jersey	79,376
New Jersey	7,672	Georgia	1,110,947	Georgia	97,353	North Carolina	65,421
North Carolina	6,413	New Jersey	1,092,982	New Jersey	85,932	Virginia	65,008
Georgia	6,222	North Carolina	1,085,976	North Carolina	85,622	Massachusetts	61,010
Virginia	5,904	Virginia	979,417	Indiana	80,991	Indiana	60,364
Massachusetts	5,855	Indiana	964,129	Virginia	79,758	Georgia	60,018
Indiana	5,531	Massachusetts	825,320	Louisiana	71,582	Wisconsin	56,872
Missouri	5,103	Tennessee	823,783	Tennessee	71,358	Minnesota	53,533
Tennessee	4,855	Missouri	802,060	Massachusetts	69,099	Missouri	50,840
Wisconsin	4,807	Louisiana	793,093	Washington	68,313	Washington	49,873
Washington	4,538	Washington	775,755	Missouri	65,757	Maryland	46,107
Maryland	4,535	Wisconsin	772,363	Alabama	62,293	Tennessee	44,731
Louisiana	4,461	Alabama	729,234	Wisconsin	62,247	Alabama	42,463
Minnesota	4,246	Minnesota	721,481	Minnesota	61,291	Louisiana	39,084
Alabama	4,083	Maryland	683,797	Maryland	58,466	Kentucky	36,948
Kentucky	3,727	Kentucky	642,696	South Carolina	55,612	South Carolina	36,000
South Carolina	3,425	South Carolina	614,921	Oklahoma	54,941	Oklahoma	35,514
Arizona	3,386	Oklahoma	584,212	Kentucky	54,536	Iowa	34,580
Colorado	3,296	Arizona	572,421	Arizona	53,285	Colorado	34,200
Oklahoma	3,272	Colorado	560,236	Colorado	49,274	Connecticut	31,141
Connecticut	3,211	Mississippi	505,550	Mississippi	46,425	Arizona	29,549
Iowa	2,834	Iowa	480,826	Connecticut	39,627	Oregon	27,165
Oregon	2,724	Connecticut	465,465	Iowa	38,817	Arkansas	27,101
Mississippi	2,625	Oregon	455,895	Oregon	38,242	Kansas	26,933
Kansas	2,476	Arkansas	437,036	Utah	37,239	Mississippi	26,201
Arkansas	2,388	Utah	423,386	Arkansas	37,225	West Virginia	22,401
West Virginia	1,897	Kansas	421,112	Kansas	37,130	Utah	20,930
Utah	1,680	West Virginia	344,236	West Virginia	26,420	Nebraska	18,129
Nebraska	1,594	New Mexico	287,229	New Mexico	25,364	New Mexico	15,701
New Mexico	1,500	Nebraska	268,100	Nebraska	23,188	Maine	13,692
Maine	1,187	Idaho	212,444	Idaho	18,287	Idaho	12,243
Hawaii	1,083	Maine	211,817	Maine	18,227	New Hampshire	10,796
New Hampshire	1,057	Nevada	168,353	New Hampshire	18,085	Hawaii	10,371
Nevada	1,007	Hawaii	168,160	Nevada	15,550	Montana	10,073
Idaho	998	New Hampshire	166,045	Hawaii	13,975	Rhode Island	8,627
Rhode Island	986	Montana	152,207	Montana	13,272	South Dakota	8,074
Montana	809	Rhode Island	134,061	Rhode Island	12,439	North Dakota	7,821
South Dakota	709	South Dakota	126,817	South Dakota	11,312	Vermont	5,968
North Dakota	672	North Dakota	119,004	North Dakota	10,581	Wyoming	5,933
Delaware	644	Alaska	105,678	Alaska	10,567	Delaware	5,895
District of Columbia	622	Wyoming	98,455	Delaware	9,103	Alaska	5,692
Vermont	548	Delaware	95,659	Wyoming	8,811	District of Columbia	3,842
Alaska	525	Vermont	92,755	Vermont	8,380	Michigan	—
Wyoming	490	District of Columbia	86,435	District of Columbia	7,587	Nevada	—

NOTE: — Data not reported.

Source: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. State Profiles of Public Elementary and Secondary Education, 1987-88. NCES 90-073. October 1990. Table 1. P.21.

Rankings of States by Number of Classroom Teachers, Overall Pupil-Teacher Ratio, Number of Administrators, and Number of Public Elementary/Secondary Schools Operated: School Year 1987-88

Classroom teachers		Pupil–teacher ratio		Number of administrators		Number of public schools	
State	Total	State	Ratio	State	Total	State	Total
California	195,864	Utah	24.7	California	24,632	California	7,123
Texas	187,159	California	22.9	Texas	18,299	Texas	5,787
New York	170,236	Hawaii	21.6	Michigan	14,761	Illinois	4,263
Illinois	105,217	Idaho	20.7	Pennsylvania	11,667	New York	3,971
Pennsylvania	103,307	Washington	20.2	New York	10,971	Ohio	3,743
Ohio	99,641	Nevada	20.2	Ohio	10,021	Michigan	3,620
Florida	95,857	Michigan	20.1	Florida	8,285	Pennsylvania	3,313
Michigan	80,081	Tennessee	19.6	New Jersey	6,987	Florida	2,379
New Jersey	78,335	Alabama	19.3	Illinois	5,942	New Jersey	2,246
Georgia	62,280	New Mexico	18.9	North Carolina	5,683	Missouri	2,150
Virginia	59,928	Arizona	18.6	Missouri	5,295	Wisconsin	2,002
North Carolina	59,771	Louisiana	18.5	Virginia	4,870	North Carolina	1,952
Massachusetts	59,517	Oregon	18.3	Tennessee	4,744	Indiana	1,926
Indiana	53,749	Kentucky	18.2	Georgia	4,742	Oklahoma	1,889
Missouri	49,632	North Carolina	18.2	Massachusetts	4,424	Washington	1,852
Wisconsin	47,721	Ohio	18.0	Louisiana	4,391	Massachusetts	1,795
Louisiana	42,920	Colorado	18.0	Indiana	4,114	Virginia	1,761
Minnesota	42,132	Indiana	17.9	Colorado	3,408	Georgia	1,724
Tennessee	42,082	Georgia	17.8	Alabama	3,390	Iowa	1,633
Maryland	40,093	Florida	17.4	Washington	3,253	Louisiana	1,599
Washington	38,344	Texas	17.3	Minnesota	3,243	Tennessee	1,578
Alabama	37,718	Alaska	17.3	Wisconsin	3,070	Minnesota	1,570
South Carolina	35,701	South Carolina	17.2	Kentucky	3,034	Nebraska	1,537
Kentucky	35,239	Illinois	17.2	South Carolina	2,784	Kansas	1,463
Connecticut	35,050	Minnesota	17.1	Maryland	2,631	Kentucky	1,399
Oklahoma	34,515	Arkansas	17.1	Arizona	2,542	Colorado	1,323
Colorado	31,168	Maryland	17.1	Arkansas	2,521	Alabama	1,298
Iowa	30,873	Oklahoma	16.9	Connecticut	2,474	Oregon	1,214
Arizona	30,707	Virginia	16.3	Oklahoma	2,341	Maryland	1,206
Kansas	27,317	Wisconsin	16.2	Oregon	2,292	Arkansas	1,112
Arkansas	25,572	Missouri	16.2	Iowa	2,037	South Carolina	1,103
Oregon	24,911	Pennsylvania	16.2	Kansas	1,933	West Virginia	1,084
West Virginia	22,702	Delaware	16.1	West Virginia	1,833	Connecticut	970
Nebraska	17,713	New Hampshire	16.0	Nebraska	1,552	Arizona	965
Utah	17,124	Montana	15.8	Maine	1,330	Mississippi	955
New Mexico	15,175	North Dakota	15.6	Utah	1,126	South Dakota	790
Maine	14,204	Iowa	15.6	New Mexico	1,067	Montana	775
New Hampshire	10,363	South Dakota	15.5	Vermont	1,059	Maine	749
Idaho	10,258	Kansas	15.4	Idaho	831	Utah	725
Montana	9,659	New York	15.2	District of Columbia	741	North Dakota	691
Rhode Island	8,934	West Virginia	15.2	New Hampshire	714	New Mexico	648
Nevada	8,348	Nebraska	15.1	North Dakota	710	Idaho	565
South Dakota	8,172	Rhode Island	15.0	Rhode Island	671	Alaska	456
Hawaii	7,684	Maine	14.9	Montana	661	New Hampshire	435
North Dakota	7,632	Wyoming	14.5	Wyoming	657	Wyoming	389
Vermont	6,938	New Jersey	14.0	Hawaii	604	Vermont	333
Wyoming	6,798	District of Columbia	13.9	Nevada	587	Nevada	305
District of Columbia	6,232	Massachusetts	13.9	South Dakota	583	Rhode Island	298
Alaska	6,113	Vermont	13.4	Alaska	553	Hawaii	229
Delaware	5,951	Connecticut	13.3	Delaware	519	District of Columbia	188
Mississippi	—	Mississippi	—	Mississippi	—	Delaware	167

NOTE. — Data not reported.

Source: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. State Profiles of Public Elementary and Secondary Education, 1987-88. NCES 90-073. October 1990. Table 2. P.22.

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Rankings of States by Total State Revenue Per Capita, Average Teacher Salary, Total Revenue for Public Schools, and Current Expenditure for Education Per Pupil in Membership: Fiscal Year 1987.

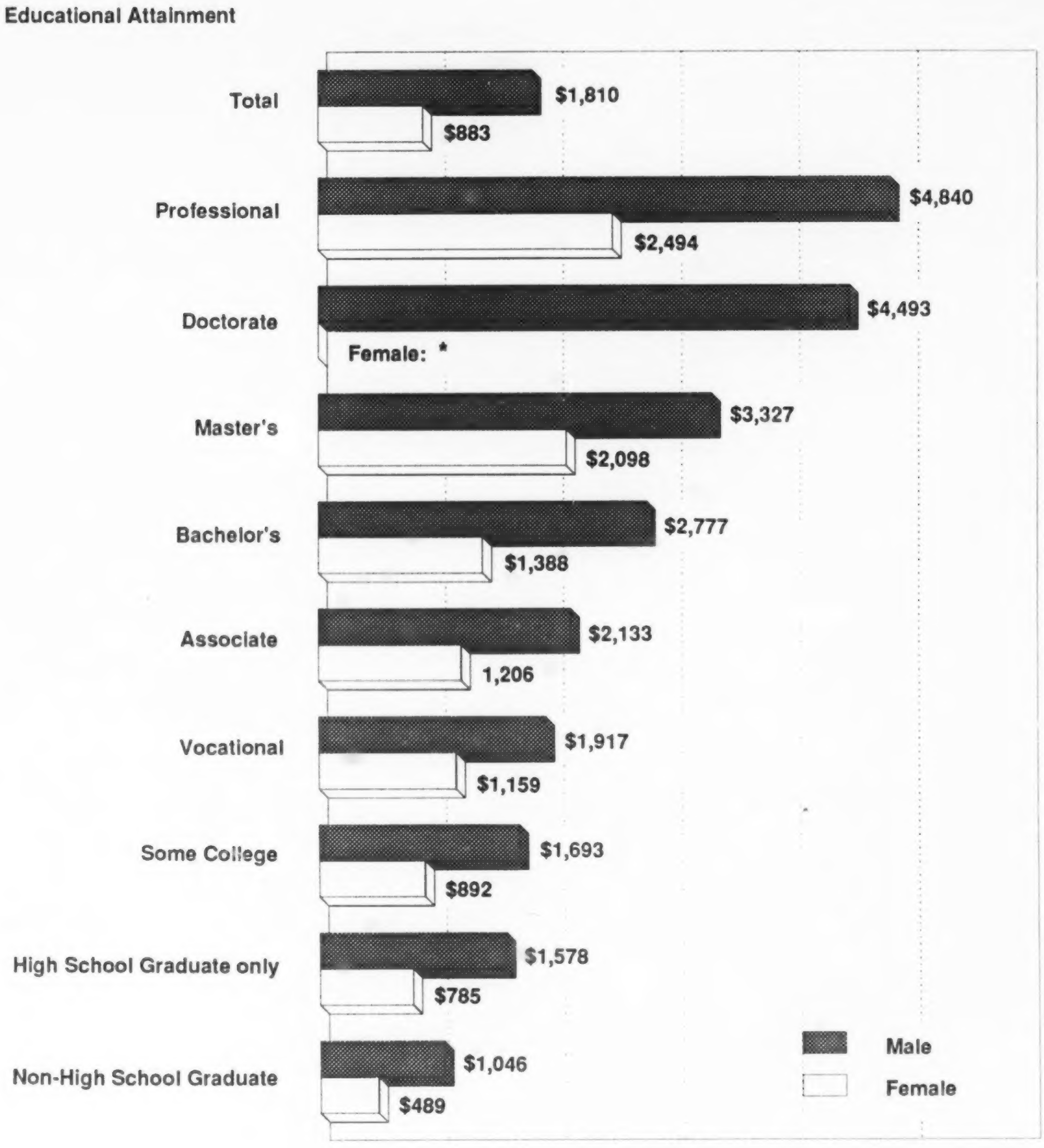
Total State revenue per capita		Average teacher salary (1987)		Revenue for public schools (in thousands of dollars)		Current expenditure per pupil in membership (Fall 1986)	
State	Total	State	Average	State	Total	State	Total
Alaska	$9,318	Alaska	$39,769	California	$17,219,479	Alaska	$7,122
Wyoming	3,678	District of Columbia	33,797	New York	15,757,034	New York	5,647
New York	3,118	New York	32,000	Texas	11,900,931	New Jersey	5,508
Delaware	3,075	Michigan	31,500	Pennsylvania	8,259,284	District of Columbia	5,153
Hawaii	2,922	California	31,219	Michigan	7,242,874	Connecticut	5,150
Rhode Island	2,612	Rhode Island	31,079	Florida	6,610,567	Wyoming	4,852
New Mexico	2,561	Connecticut	28,902	New Jersey	6,592,990	Rhode Island	4,535
Washington	2,551	Maryland	28,893	Ohio	6,293,631	Massachusetts	4,490
New Jersey	2,547	New Jersey	28,718	Illinois	6,025,415	Delaware	4,429
California	2,543	Massachusetts	28,410	Massachusetts	4,103,291	Pennsylvania	4,287
Wisconsin	2,531	Minnesota	28,340	Georgia	3,708,383	Maryland	4,211
Minnesota	2,507	Illinois	28,238	Indiana	3,563,524	Vermont	4,107
Nevada	2,457	Wyoming	28,103	North Carolina	3,473,998	Wisconsin	4,020
Massachusetts	2,391	Wisconsin	27,815	Wisconsin	3,303,237	Minnesota	3,963
Connecticut	2,365	Delaware	27,467	Maryland	3,223,020	Oregon	3,888
Vermont	2,362	Pennsylvania	27,422	Washington	3,118,233	Michigan	3,822
Michigan	2,336	Colorado	27,387	Minnesota	3,101,661	Colorado	3,814
Ohio	2,324	Washington	27,285	Missouri	2,749,630	Montana	3,808
North Dakota	2,300	Nevada	26,960	Connecticut	2,606,381	California	3,772
Oregon	2,256	Hawaii	26,815	Louisiana	2,416,437	Washington	3,689
Montana	2,244	Oregon	26,690	Colorado	2,395,723	New Hampshire	3,603
Maine	2,234	Ohio	26,288	Arizona	2,106,564	Maine	3,591
Maryland	2,139	Arizona	25,972	Alabama	2,070,639	Iowa	3,585
Louisiana	2,075	Indiana	25,581	Tennessee	2,063,971	Kansas	3,573
West Virginia	2,066	Virginia	25,039	South Carolina	1,987,657	Nebraska	3,549
Colorado	2,040	Texas	24,903	Oregon	1,863,501	Illinois	3,541
Utah	2,024	Georgia	24,200	Iowa	1,846,332	Virginia	3,533
Pennsylvania	1,994	North Carolina	23,879	Oklahoma	1,727,848	Florida	3,515
South Carolina	1,975	New Mexico	23,850	Kansas	1,681,665	Hawaii	3,503
Arizona	1,971	Florida	23,833	Kentucky	1,656,267	West Virginia	3,493
Iowa	1,934	Kansas	23,459	West Virginia	1,237,866	Arizona	3,436
Virginia	1,893	Missouri	23,435	Utah	1,153,356	Ohio	3,408
Idaho	1,872	Montana	23,206	Arkansas	1,111,619	Indiana	3,213
Kentucky	1,858	South Carolina	23,201	Mississippi	1,076,279	Nevada	3,182
North Carolina	1,852	Alabama	23,200	New Mexico	1,008,277	Texas	3,163
Illinois	1,781	Utah	23,035	Nebraska	1,005,585	North Dakota	3,159
Oklahoma	1,767	Tennessee	22,627	Maine	779,817	Georgia	3,148
South Dakota	1,751	Iowa	22,615	Alaska	731,150	Missouri	3,142
Alabama	1,733	Kentucky	22,467	New Hampshire	647,069	New Mexico	3,071
Mississippi	1,681	New Hampshire	21,869	Montana	632,958	South Carolina	2,988
New Hampshire	1,664	Vermont	21,835	Rhode Island	630,222	North Carolina	2,942
Kansas	1,661	Nebraska	21,834	Wyoming	609,195	South Dakota	2,935
Georgia	1,646	Idaho	21,480	Nevada	595,821	Oklahoma	2,878
Indiana	1,634	Oklahoma	21,468	Hawaii	592,815	Louisiana	2,843
Arkansas	1,628	West Virginia	21,446	Idaho	544,525	Tennessee	2,649
Nebraska	1,553	North Dakota	21,284	District of Columbia	439,795	Arkansas	2,558
Missouri	1,521	Maine	21,257	Delaware	429,392	Kentucky	2,463
Tennessee	1,521	Louisiana	21,196	North Dakota	421,752	Idaho	2,462
Florida	1,447	Arkansas	19,904	South Dakota	417,550	Alabama	2,420
Texas	1,432	Mississippi	19,447	Vermont	388,013	Utah	2,242
District of Columbia	—	South Dakota	18,781	Virginia	—	Mississippi	2,231

NOTE.—— Data not reported.

Source: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. State Profiles of Public Elementary and Secondary Education, 1987-88. NCES 90-073. October 1990. Table 1. P.23.

GENERALLY, THE MORE EDUCATION, THE MORE INCOME

Four-Month Average Income and Educational Attainment, by Sex for Persons 18 Years and Over: Spring 1987



* Base too small

World Eagle chart based on one in the U.S. Bureau of the Census Release CB90-204, November 9, 1990.

NO UNDERCLASS SOLUTION CAN IGNORE YOUNG MALES

by Ronald B. Mincy, The Urban Institute

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Several forces have increased employment, education, and earnings of black women relative to black men. The same phenomenon is occurring among some segments of the Latino population. This one-sided progress is happening at a time when low-skilled minority men are growing increasingly detached from jobs and families, and when families must rely on two earners to escape underclass neighborhoods. While our nation has no coordinated policy to reduce the size of the underclass, existing and developing programs are likely to exacerbate this gender imbalance and, therefore, perpetuate the underclass.

The 1988 Family Support Act (FSA) is a major contributor to this gender imbalance. FSA will help young unmarried mothers living in underclass neighborhoods prepare for jobs, but lacks any provisions to help young unmarried fathers — many of them unemployed — obtain work and/or upgrade their skills. The system maintains an unfortunate double standard that could widen the gap in educational and employment advantages that already separate these young men from their female counterparts.

Other major programs extend help to the children of these young parents. But their mechanisms appear to take the double standard one step further by separating working fathers from unemployed fathers. Child support assurance programs — adopted by a growing number of states — require only employed fathers to support their families and do nothing to help the jobless parent support his family. Moreover, some of the contributions deducted from the wages of employed fathers are pooled with welfare funds and redistributed to children whose noncustodial fathers are unemployed. This discrepancy absolves young unemployed fathers of their parental responsibilities and imposes an unfair burden on single mothers, working fathers, and taxpayers.

While some efforts to reduce teenage pregnancy have begun to include young men in their outreach, the impact has been minimal. Insufficient funding, inadequate male staffing, and female staffers unreceptive to male program participants have tended to discourage young men from participating. The result: young women are learning contraceptive practices, responsible sexual behavior, and lessons that could increase their self-worth and life options, while their male counterparts are being left behind without the benefit of similar instruction.

> ***"Young women are learning . . . lessons that could increase their self worth, while their male counterparts are being left behind. . . ."***

This neglect is all the more disturbing given what we know about adolescent male sexual behavior. Almost 20 percent of all boys become sexually active before they are 14 years old, and the average age of first intercourse for males is 16 (14 for black youth). Moreover, males who become sexually active before age 16 are more likely to become absent fathers than those who become sexually active when they are older.

Some programs do offer to help young men. Unfortunately, they offer this help too late. Government-sponsored employment and training programs that center on disadvantaged male youth serve only those 14 and older. By this age, youngsters have already made many of life's critical decisions regarding their education and parenting responsibilities, the outcomes of which will affect the quality of their lives. Many have already developed formidable barriers to learning responsible behavior and to finding and keeping jobs. Thus, these programs have realized only modest gains.

Demographic changes affecting the size and composition of the labor force make this a strategic time to intervene in the lives of these young men. When these adolescents enter the workforce in the 21st century they will find receptive employers only if they are (1) free from drug and alcohol dependencies, (2) equipped with solid literacy and math skills, and (3) conversant with workplace deportment required for an increasingly service-oriented economy.

However, if the needs of these adolescent males continue to be ignored, progress for them and for their children will be impossible. So long as young men do not support their children and teenage boys fail to postpone fatherhood until they have steady employment, families will remain trapped in underclass neighborhoods where social problems incubate and human resources are wasted. ◆

Based on *"A Mentor, Peer Group, Incentive Model for Helping Underclass Youth,"* by Ronald B. Mincy and Susan J. Wiener, September 1990, available from the Publications Office for $7.50.

THE WORLD HERITAGE CONVENTION: A NEW IDEA TAKES SHAPE

THE "Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage" or World Heritage Convention is a legal instrument through which states voluntarily commit themselves to protect monuments and sites within their territory that are recognized to be of such outstanding value that safeguarding them concerns humanity as a whole. States parties to the Convention also undertake to respect the heritage of universal value located on the territory of other states and to make a financial contribution towards safeguarding this heritage in countries which lack the means to do so.

One hundred and twelve states are already parties to the Convention.

1960, a decisive year

In the 1960s, there was a danger that the monuments of Nubia would be permanently submerged beneath the waters of the Nile following the construction of the Aswan High Dam. The international community became aware that the disappearance of these monuments would be an irreparable loss, not only for Egypt and the Sudan, but for humanity as a whole. It was clear that the considerable resources required to save the monuments were beyond the means of the two countries concerned. The idea of a common heritage—and of a common responsibility to safeguard it—took shape. On 8 March 1960, Mr. René Maheu, the Director-General of Unesco, launched an international appeal and some $30 million were eventually collected to save the Nubian monuments.

Around this time more and more voices were being raised in defence of the environment and for the protection of natural sites. This movement, which has grown constantly since then, has fostered an awareness of the need to respect the riches of nature which are indissociable from the past and future of humanity.

The World Heritage Convention is a result of the meeting of these two trends. By affirming that the works of man and the works of nature belong to a single heritage, the Convention was a profoundly original document when it was adopted by Unesco's General Conference in 1972.

An inventory of the world heritage

The idea was to identify the cultural and natural properties within each country whose protection would be a matter of concern to the international community as a whole. The text of the Convention describes these treasures as properties of *outstanding universal value* from the point of view of art or history, science or natural beauty.

States parties to the Convention draw up an inventory of properties which they consider to fall within these categories and then nominate them for inclusion on the World Heritage List. The World Heritage Committee, an intergovernmental committee comprising representatives of twenty-one states parties to the Convention elected on a rota basis, studies these nominations in the light of detailed reports prepared by two non-governmental organizations, the International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN). The number of dossiers studied each year is considerable, but only a handful of properties are inscribed on the World Heritage List.

The List currently comprises 322 properties located in 69 countries. It is an attempt to create a world inventory which will be as comprehensive, representative and coherent as possible.

The criteria for selection

The *cultural* monuments and sites chosen should:

- constitute a unique achievement (the Fort and Shalamar Gardens, Pakistan; the Château of Chambord, France);
- have exercised considerable influence at a certain period (the historic centre of Florence, Italy);
- provide evidence of a civilization which has disappeared (the Royal Palaces of Abomey, Benin; Machu Picchu, Peru);
- illustrate a significant historical period (Abu Mena, Egypt; the historic centre of Salvador de Bahia, Brazil);
- constitute an outstanding example of a traditional way of life (the M'Zab Valley, Algeria; the village of Holloko, Hungary);
- be associated with ideas or beliefs of universal significance (the sacred city of Kandy, Sri Lanka; Independence Hall, United States).

Natural heritage properties should:

- illustrate a stage in the Earth's evolution (the Galapagos Islands, Ecuador);
- represent ongoing geological processes (the Hawaii Volcanoes, United States; Los Glaciares, Argentina);
- constitute remarkable natural formations or areas of exceptional natural beauty (Kilimanjaro National Park, United Republic of Tanzania; Cape Girolata and Scandola Nature Reserve in Corsica, France);
- contain the natural habitats of endangered species (Garamba National Park, Zaire, Wood Buffalo National Park, Canada).

The properties inscribed on the List very often meet several of these criteria. Some of them are of outstanding cultural and natural value.

Threats to the world heritage

Some of the problems facing the world heritage are associated with development and changing lifestyles, demographic pressure on natural resources, industrialization, the modernization of urban centres, or pollution. Others are the result of neglect or lack of means. Some sites are endangered by mass tourism, the facilities created to cater for tourism, and the cultural shocks that they may lead to. In other cases, natural catastrophes such as floods, earthquakes or cyclones may cause serious damage.

The number and the gravity of these problems are growing dramatically and it is no exaggeration to say that the entire world heritage is to some extent at risk.

The role of the Convention

The Convention only applies to properties inscribed on the World Heritage List, although the cultural and natural heritage at large is threatened. But the international community primarily wishes to draw attention to the most representative properties and to organize effective international co-operation to ensure that they will be protected and transmitted to future generations.

Inscription on the World Heritage List undeniably confers new prestige on a property, but at the same time it creates obligations for the state concerned, which must ensure that the property is protected and take responsibility for it vis-à-vis the international community. The World Heritage Committee, with the support of the media, may remind a state of its obligations if these are not being respected. Many positive results have been achieved by this kind of pressure, such as the cancellation of projects to construct dams, polluting factories, or over-intrusive tourist facilities.

The World Heritage Committee also acts directly on behalf of protected sites at the request of states parties to the Convention. Through the World Heritage Fund (some $2.5 million a year), international co-operation can be organized, specialists and equipment can be provided, training and educational activities can be undertaken, and funds can be raised for major projects such as the restoration of monuments or the management of nature reserves. Such projects may be carried out as part of International Safeguarding Campaigns like that in which Unesco is currently engaged for the old city of Sana'a in the Republic of Yemen.

continued

Source: The Unesco Courier. October 1990. Pp. 44-45.

WORLD HERITAGE CONVENTION continued

Algeria. Al Qal'a of Beni Hammad. Tassili n'Ajjer. M'Zab Valley. Djemila. Tipasa. Timgad.

Argentina. Los Glaciares. Iguazu National Park.

Argentina and Brazil. Jesuit Missions of the Guaranis: San Ignacio Mini, Santa Ana, Nuestra Señora de Loreto and Santa Maria la Mayor (Argentina); ruins of São Miguel das Missões (Brazil).

Australia. Kakadu National Park. Great Barrier Reef. Willandra Lakes Region. Tasmanian Wilderness. Lord Howe Island group. Australian East Coast Temperate and Sub-Tropical Rainforest Parks. Uluru National Park. Wet Tropics of Queensland.

Bangladesh. Historic mosque city of Bagerhat. Ruins of the Buddhist Vihara, Paharpur.

Benin. Royal Palaces of Abomey.

Bolivia. City of Potosi.

Brazil. Historic town of Ouro Preto. Historic centre of the town of Olinda. Historic centre of Salvador de Bahia. Santuary of Bom Jesus do Congonhas. Iguaçu National Park. Brasilia.

Bulgaria. Boyana Church. Madara Rider. Thracian tomb of Kazanlak. Rock-hewn churches of Ivanovo. Ancient city of Nesebar. Rila Monastery. Srebarna Nature Reserve. Pirin National Park. Thracian tomb of Sveshtari.

Cameroon. Dja Faunal Reserve.

Canada. L'Anse aux Meadows National Historic Park. Nahanni National Park. Dinosaur Provincial Park. Anthony Island. Head-Smashed-In Bison Jump Complex. Wood Buffalo National Park. Canadian Rocky Mountain Parks.* Quebec (historic area). Gros Morne National Park.

Canada and United States of America. Kluane National Park/Wrangell-St. Elias National Park and Preserve.

Central African Republic. Parc National du Manovo-Gounda St. Floris.

China. Mount Taishan. The Great Wall. Imperial Palace of the Ming and Qing Dynasties. Mogao Caves. Mausoleum of the First Qin Emperor. Peking Man site at Zhoukoudian.

Colombia. Port, fortresses and group of monuments, Cartagena.

Costa Rica. Talamanca Range-La Amistad Reserves.

Côte d'Ivoire. Tai National Park. Comoé National Park.

Cuba. Old Havana and its fortifications. Trinidad and the Valley de los Ingenios.

Cyprus. Paphos. Painted churches in the Troodos Region.

Ecuador. Galapagos Islands. City of Quito. Sangay National Park.

Egypt. Memphis and its Necropolis. Pyramid fields from Giza to Dahshur. Ancient Thebes with its Necropolis. Nubian monuments from Abu Simbel to Philae. Islamic Cairo. Abu Mena.

Ethiopia. Simen National Park. Rock-hewn churches, Lalibela. Fasil Ghebbi, Gondar Region. Lower valley of the Awash. Tiya. Aksum. Lower valley of the Omo.

France. Mont-Saint-Michel and its Bay. Chartres Cathedral. Palace and Park of Versailles. Vézelay, Church and Hill. Decorated Grottoes of the Vézère Valley. Palace and Park of Fontainebleau. Château and Estate of Chambord. Amiens Cathedral. Roman Theatre and Triumphal Arch, Orange. Roman and Romanesque monuments, Arles. Cistercian Abbey of Fontenay. Royal Saltworks of Arc-et-Senans. Place Stanislas, Place de la Carrière and Place d'Alliance, Nancy. Church of Saint-Savin sur Gartempe. Cape Girolata, Cape Porto and Scandola Nature Reserve, Corsica. Pont de Gard (Roman aqueduct). Strasbourg—Grande Ile.

Germany (Federal Republic of). Aachen Cathedral. Speyer Cathedral. Würzburg Residence with Court Gardens and Residence Square. Pilgrimage Church of Wies. Castles of Augustusburg and Falkenlust, Brühl. St. Mary's Cathedral and St. Michael's Church, Hildesheim. Roman monuments, Cathedral and Liebfrauen Church, Trier. Hanseatic city of Lübeck.

Ghana. Forts and castles, Volta, Greater Accra, Central and Western Regions. Ashante traditional buildings.

Greece. Temple of Apollo Epicurius at Bassae. Archaeological site of Delphi. The Acropolis, Athens. Mount Athos. Meteora. Palaeochristian and Byzantine monuments of Thessalonika. Archaeological site of Epidaurus. Medieval city of Rhodes. Archaeological site of Olympia. Mystras.

Guatemala. Tikal National Park. Antigua Guatemala. Archaeological Park and ruins of Quirigua.

Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire. Mount Nimba Strict Nature Reserve.

Haiti. National History Park—Citadel, Sans Souci, Ramiers.

Holy See. Vatican City.

Honduras. Maya site of Copan. Rio Platano Biosphere Reserve.

Hungary. Budapest, banks of the Danube with district of Buda Castle. Holloko.

India. Ajanta Caves. Ellora Caves. Agra Fort. Taj Mahal. Sun Temple, Konarak. Group of monuments at Mahabalipuram. Kaziranga National Park. Manas Wildlife Sanctuary. Keoladeo National Park. Churches and convents of Goa. Khajuraho group of monuments. Group of monuments at Hampi. Fatehpur Sikri. Group of monuments at Pattadakal. Elephanta Caves. Brihadisvara Temple, Thanjavur. Sundarbans National Park. Nanda Devi National Park. Buddhist monuments at Sanchi.

Iraq. Hatra.

Islamic Republic of Iran. Tchogha Zanbil. Persepolis. Meidan Emam, Esfahan.

Italy. Rock drawings, Valcamonica. Historic centre of Rome. Church and Dominican Convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie with *The Last Supper* by Leonardo da Vinci. Historic centre of Florence. Venice and its lagoon. Piazza del Duomo, Pisa.

Jordan. Old city of Jerusalem and its walls. Petra. Quseir Amra.

Lebanon. Anjar. Baalbek. Byblos. Tyr.

Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. Archaeological site of Leptis Magna. Archaeological site of Sabratha. Archaeological site of Cyrene. Rock-art sites of Tadrart Acacus. Old town of Ghadamès.

Malawi. Lake Malawi National Park.

Mali. Old towns of Djenné. Timbuktu. Cliff of Bandiagara (Land of the Dogons).

Malta. Hal Saflieni Hypogeum. City of Valetta. Ggantija Temples.

Mauritania. Banc d'Arguin National Park.

Mexico. Sian Ka'an. Pre-Hispanic city and National Park of Palenque. Historic centre of Mexico City and Xochimilco. Pre-Hispanic city of Teotihuacán. Historic centre of Oaxaca and archaeological site of Monte Alban. Historic centre of Puebla. Historic town of Guanajuato and adjacent mines. Pre-Hispanic city of Chichen-Itza.

Morocco. Medina of Fez. Medina of Marrakesh. Ksar of Ait-Ben-Haddou.

Nepal. Sagarmatha National Park. Kathmandu Valley. Royal Chitwan National Park.

New Zealand. Westland and Mount Cook National Park. Fiordland National Park.

Norway. Urnes Stave Church. Bryggen. Roros. Rock drawings of Alta.

Oman. Bahla Fort. Archaeological sites of Bat, Al-Khutm and Al-Ayn.

Pakistan. Archaeological ruins at Moenjodaro. Taxila. Buddhist ruins of Takht-i-Bahi and neighbouring city remains at Sahr-i-Bahlol. Historical monuments of Thatta. Fort and Shalamar Gardens, Lahore.

Panama. Fortifications on the Caribbean side of Portobelo-San Lorenzo. Darien National Park.

Peru. City of Cuzco. Historic sanctuary of Machu Picchu. Archaeological site of Chavin. Huascaran National Park. Chan Chan archaeological zone. Manu National Park. Convent ensemble of San Francisco de Lima.

Poland. Historic centre of Cracow. Wieliczka Salt Mine. Auschwitz Concentration Camp. Bialowieza National Park. Historic centre of Warsaw.

Portugal. Central zone ot the town of Angra do Heroismo, Azores. Monastery of the Hieronymites and Tower of Belem, Lisbon. Monastery of Batalha. Convent of Christ, Tomar. Historic centre of Evora. Monastery of Alcobaça.

Republic of Yemen. Old city of Sana'a. Old walled city of Shibam.

Senegal. Island of Goree. Niokolo-Koba National Park. Djoudj National Bird Sanctuary.

Seychelles. Aldabra Atoll. Vallée de Mai Nature Reserve.

Spain. Mosque of Cordoba. Alhambra and Generalife, Granada. Burgos Cathedral. Monastery and site of the Escurial, Madrid. Parque Güell, Palacio Güell and Casa Mila, Barcelona. Altamira Cave. Old town of Segovia and its aqueduct. Churches of the Kingdom of the Asturias. Santiago de Compostela (old town). Old town of Avila with its extra-muros churches. Mudejar architecture of Teruel. Historic city of Toledo. Garajonay National Park. Old town of Cáceres. Cathedral, Alcazar and Archivo de Indias, Seville. Old city of Salamanca.

Sri Lanka. Sacred city of Anuradhapura. Ancient city of Polonnaruva. Ancient city of Sigiriya. Sinhara Forest Reserve. Sacred city of Kandy. Old town of Galle and its fortifications.

Switzerland. Convent of St. Gall. Benedictine Convent of St. John, Müstair. Old city of Berne.

Syrian Arab Republic. Ancient city of Damascus. Ancient city of Bosra. Site of Palmyra. Ancient city of Aleppo.

Tunisia. Medina of Tunis. Site of Carthage. Amphitheatre of El Djem. Ichkeul National Park. Punic town of Kerkuane and its Necropolis. Medina of Sousse. Kairouan.

Turkey. Historic areas of Istanbul. Göreme National Park and rock sites of Cappadocia. Great Mosque and Hospital of Divrigi. Hattusha. Nemrut Dag. Xanthos-Letoon. Hierapolis-Pamukkale.

United Kingdom. Giant's Causeway and causeway coast. Durham Castle and Cathedral. Ironbridge Gorge. Studley Royal Park including ruins of Fountains Abbey. Stonehenge, Avebury and associated megalithic sites. Castles and Town Walls of King Edward in Gwynedd. St. Kilda. Blenheim Palace. City of Bath. Hadrian's Wall. Palace of Westminster, Westminster Abbey and St. Margaret's Church. Henderson Island. The Tower of London. Canterbury Cathedral, St. Augustine's Abbey and St. Martin's Church.

United Republic of Tanzania. Ngorongoro Conservation Area. Ruins of Kilwa Kisiwani and ruins of Songo Mnara. Serengeti National Park. Selous Game Reserve. Kilimanjaro National Park.

United States of America. Mesa Verde. Yellowstone. Grand Canyon National Park. Everglades National Park. Independence Hall. Redwood National Park. Mammoth Cave National Park. Olympic National Park. Cahokia Mounds State Historic Site. Great Smoky Mountains National Park. La Fortaleza and San Juan Historic Site, Puerto Rico. Statue of Liberty. Yosemite National Park. Chaco Culture National Historical Park. Monticello and University of Virginia, Charlottesville. Hawaii Volcanoes National Park.

Yugoslavia. Old city of Dubrovnik. Stari Ras and Sopocani. Historical complex of Split with the Palace of Diocletian. Plitvice Lakes National Park. Ohrid Region with its cultural and historical aspect and its natural environment. Natural and cultural-historical region of Kotor. Durmitor National Park. Studenica Monastery. Skocjan Caves.

Zaire. Virunga National Park. Garamba National Park. Kahuzi-Biega National Park. Salonga National Park.

Zambia/Zimbabwe. Victoria Falls/Mosi-oa-Tunya.

Zimbabwe. Mana Pools National Park, Sapi and Chewore Safari Areas. Great Zimbabwe National Monument. Khami Ruins National Monument.

The following states, in addition to those mentioned in the list above, are also parties to the Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage: Afghanistan, Antigua and Barbuda, Burkina, Burundi, Cape Verde, Chile, the Congo, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Finland, Gabon, the Gambia, Guyana, Jamaica, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Maldives, Monaco, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Paraguay, the Philippines, Qatar, Saint Christopher and Nevis, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, Sweden, Thailand, Uganda and Viet Nam.

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*The Burgess Shale site, which was previously inscribed on the World Heritage List, is part of the Canadian Rocky Mountain Parks.

Source: The Unesco Courier. October 1990. P. 48.

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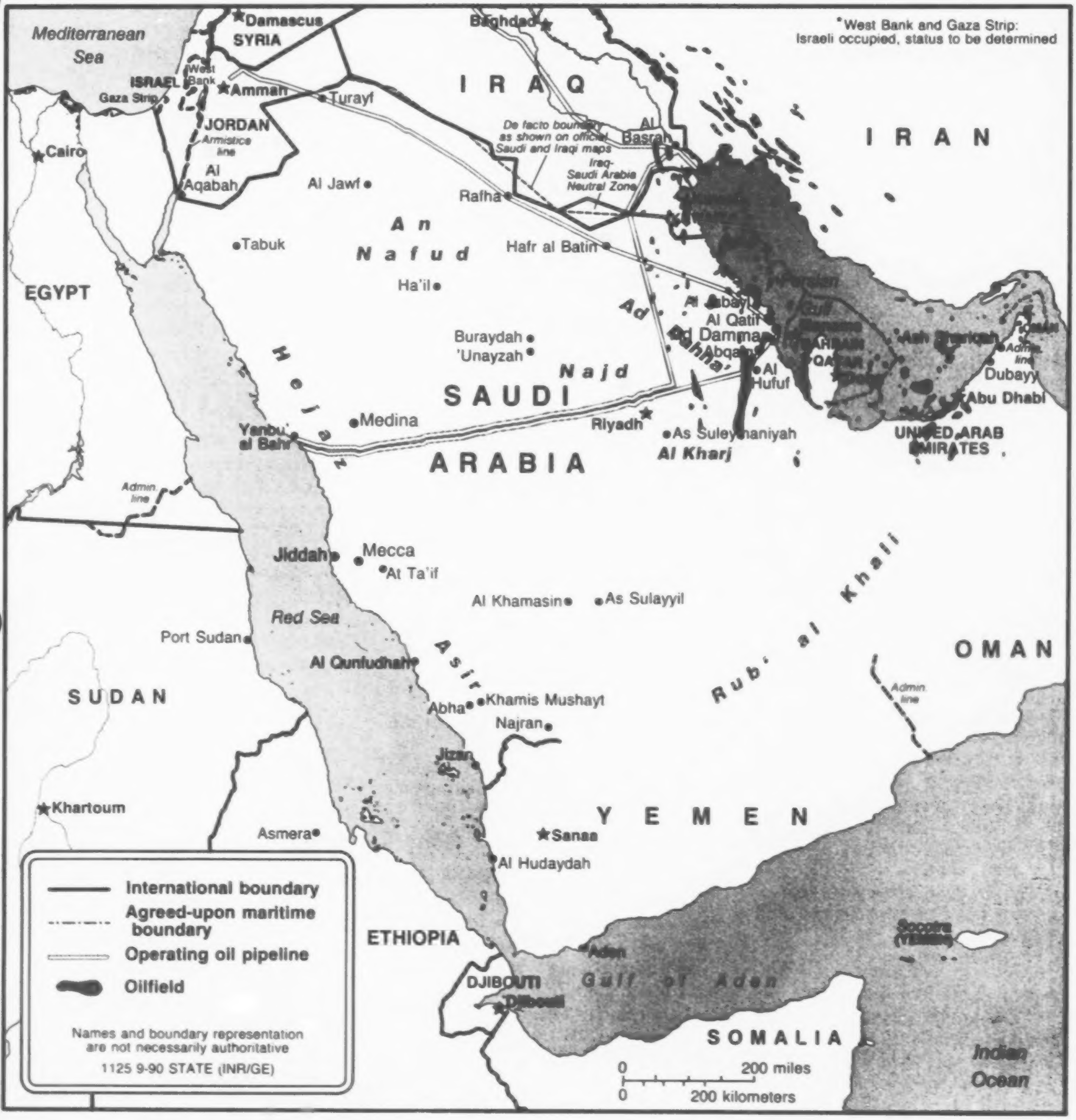
Mediterranean Sea
Damascus
SYRIA
Baghdad
IRAQ
IRAN
ISRAEL
West Bank
Gaza Strip
Amman
JORDAN
Armistice line
Al Aqabah
Cairo
Turayf
De facto boundary as shown on official Saudi and Iraqi maps
Al Basrah
Iraq-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone
Al Jawf
Rafha
An Nafud
Tabuk
Hafr al Batin
Ha'il
EGYPT
Ad Dahna
Al Jubayl
Al Qatif
Ad Dammam
Abqaiq
Al Hufuf
Persian Gulf
Manama
BAHRAIN
QATAR
Doha
Ash Shariqah
Dubayy
Abu Dhabi
Admin. line
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
Buraydah
'Unayzah
Najd
Hejaz
SAUDI ARABIA
Medina
Yanbu' al Bahr
Riyadh
As Sulaymaniyah
Al Kharj
Admin. line
Jiddah
Mecca
At Ta'if
Al Khamasin
As Sulayyil
Rub' al Khali
Port Sudan
Red Sea
Al Qunfudhah
Asir
OMAN
SUDAN
Abha
Khamis Mushayt
Najran
Admin. line
Jizan
Khartoum
Asmera
YEMEN
Sanaa
Al Hudaydah
ETHIOPIA
Aden
Socotra (YEMEN)
DJIBOUTI
Djibouti
Gulf of Aden
SOMALIA
Indian Ocean
*West Bank and Gaza Strip: Israeli occupied, status to be determined
International boundary
Agreed-upon maritime boundary
Operating oil pipeline
Oilfield
Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative
1125 9-90 STATE (INR/GE)
0 200 miles
0 200 kilometers

Source: U.S. Department of State Dispatch. September 24, 1990. P. 117.

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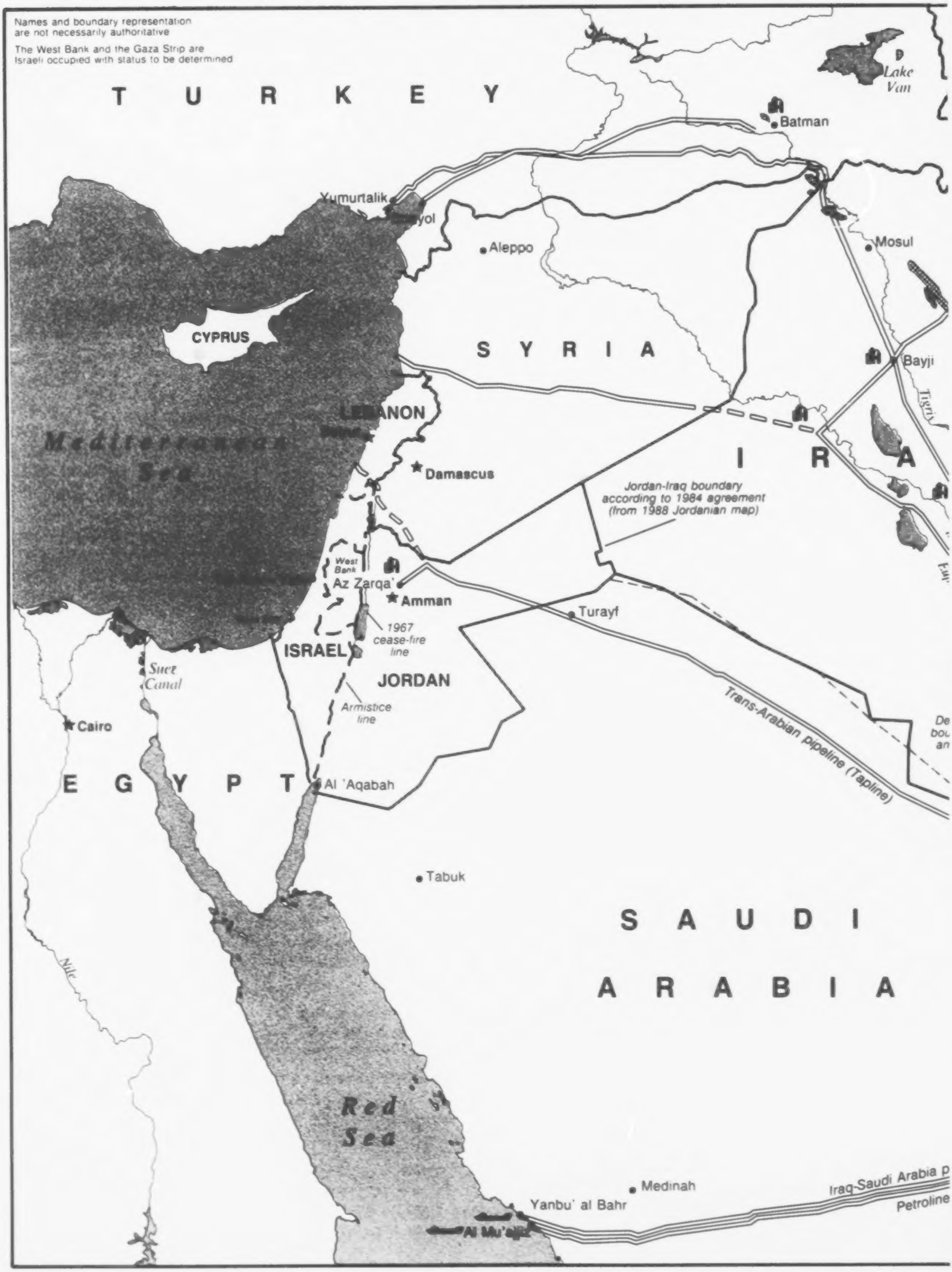
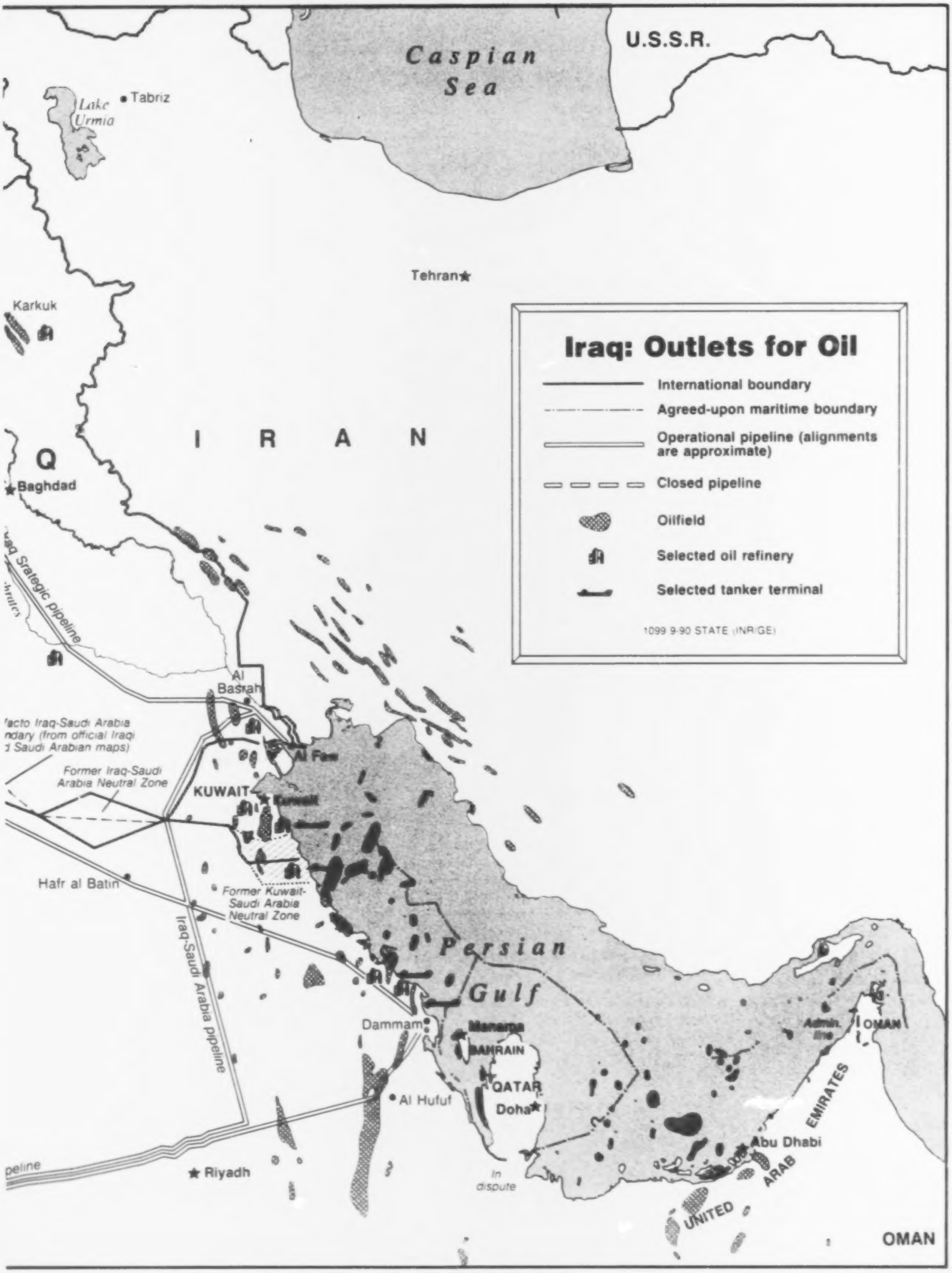

Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative
The West Bank and the Gaza Strip are Israeli occupied with status to be determined
TURKEY
Lake Van
Batman
Yumurtalik
Dortyol
Aleppo
Mosul
CYPRUS
SYRIA
Bayji
Tigris
LEBANON
Mediterranean Sea
Damascus
IRA
Jordan-Iraq boundary according to 1984 agreement (from 1988 Jordanian map)
West Bank
Az Zarqa'
Amman
Turayf
1967 cease-fire line
ISRAEL
JORDAN
Suez Canal
Armistice line
Trans-Arabian pipeline (Tapline)
Cairo
De
bou
an
EGYPT
Al 'Aqabah
Tabuk
SAUDI ARABIA
Nile
Red Sea
Medinah
Yanbu' al Bahr
Al Mu'ajiz
Iraq-Saudi Arabia p
Petroline



U.S.S.R.
Caspian Sea
Lake Urmia
Tabriz
Tehran
Karkuk
IRAN
Q
Baghdad
Strategic pipeline
Al Basrah
Al Faw
facto Iraq-Saudi Arabia
ndary (from official Iraqi
d Saudi Arabian maps)
Former Iraq-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone
KUWAIT
Kuwait
Hafr al Batin
Former Kuwait-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone
Iraq-Saudi Arabia pipeline
Persian Gulf
Dammam
Manama
BAHRAIN
QATAR
Doha
Al Hufuf
In dispute
Riyadh
peline
Abu Dhabi
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
Admin. line
OMAN
OMAN
Iraq: Outlets for Oil
International boundary
Agreed-upon maritime boundary
Operational pipeline (alignments are approximate)
Closed pipeline
Oilfield
Selected oil refinery
Selected tanker terminal
1099 9-90 STATE (INR/GE)

Source: U.S. Department of State Dispatch. September 10, 1990. Pp. 78-79.

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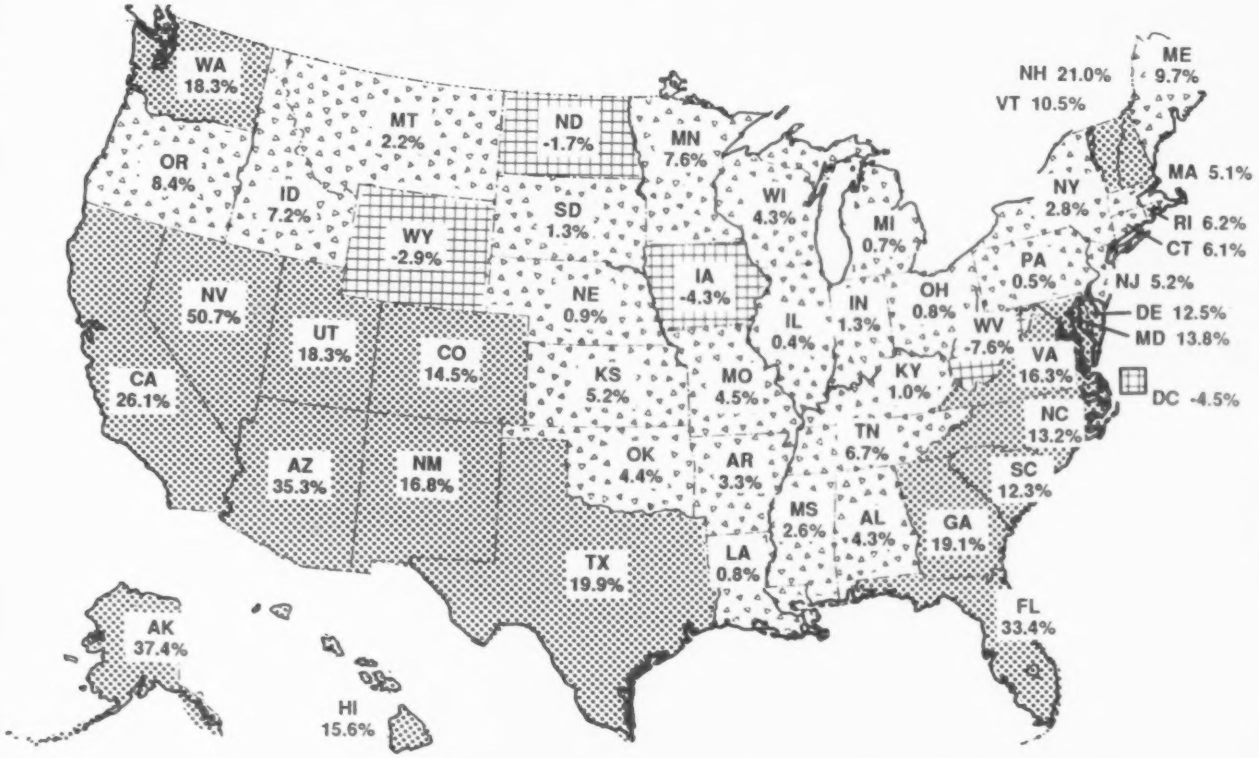
APRIL 1990 POPULATION CENSUS COUNT PLACED AT 249.6 MILLION

-- A 10.2% Increase In The Decade Since 1980 --

The Commerce Department, parent agency of the Census Bureau, can still decide the April 1990 count was flawed and that it will make statistical adjustments to state totals and the national total. The Department has said it will determine by July 15 whether to do so.

Change Since 1980 ▩ Increase over 10.0% ▨ Increase from 0.0% to 10.0% ⊞ Decline



WA 18.3%
OR 8.4%
ID 7.2%
MT 2.2%
ND -1.7%
MN 7.6%
WY -2.9%
SD 1.3%
WI 4.3%
MI 0.7%
NV 50.7%
UT 18.3%
CO 14.5%
NE 0.9%
IA -4.3%
IL 0.4%
IN 1.3%
OH 0.8%
PA 0.5%
NY 2.8%
NH 21.0%
VT 10.5%
ME 9.7%
MA 5.1%
RI 6.2%
CT 6.1%
NJ 5.2%
DE 12.5%
MD 13.8%
WV -7.6%
VA 16.3%
DC -4.5%
CA 26.1%
KS 5.2%
MO 4.5%
KY 1.0%
NC 13.2%
TN 6.7%
AZ 35.3%
NM 16.8%
OK 4.4%
AR 3.3%
SC 12.3%
MS 2.6%
AL 4.3%
GA 19.1%
TX 19.9%
LA 0.8%
FL 33.4%
AK 37.4%
HI 15.6%

RANK AND STATE		1990	1980
1.	CA	29,839,250	23,667,902
2.	NY	18,044,505	17,558,072
3.	TX	17,059,805	14,229,191
4.	FL	13,003,362	9,746,324
5.	PA	11,924,710	11,863,895
6.	IL	11,466,682	11,426,518
7.	OH	10,887,325	10,797,630
8.	MI	9,328,784	9,262,078
9.	NJ	7,748,634	7,364,823
10.	NC	6,657,630	5,881,766
11.	GA	6,508,419	5,463,105
12.	VA	6,216,568	5,346,818
13.	MA	6,029,051	5,737,037
14.	IN	5,564,228	5,490,224
15.	MO	5,137,804	4,916,686
16.	WI	4,906,745	4,705,767
17.	TN	4,896,641	4,591,120
18.	WA	4,887,941	4,132,156
19.	MD	4,798,622	4,216,975
20.	MN	4,387,029	4,075,970
21.	LA	4,238,216	4,205,900
22.	AL	4,062,608	3,893,888
23.	KY	3,698,969	3,660,777
24.	AZ	3,677,985	2,718,215
25.	SC	3,505,707	3,121,820
26.	CO	3,307,912	2,889,964
27.	CT	3,295,669	3,107,576
28.	OK	3,157,604	3,025,290
29.	OR	2,853,733	2,633,105
30.	IA	2,787,424	2,913,808
31.	MS	2,586,443	2,520,638
32.	KS	2,485,600	2,363,679
33.	AR	2,362,239	2,286,435
34.	WV	1,801,625	1,949,644
35.	UT	1,727,784	1,461,037
36.	NE	1,584,617	1,569,825
37.	NM	1,521,779	1,302,894
38.	ME	1,233,223	1,124,660
39.	NV	1,206,152	800,493
40.	HI	1,115,274	964,691
41.	NH	1,113,915	920,610
42.	ID	1,011,986	943,935
43.	RI	1,005,984	947,154
44.	MT	803,655	786,690
45.	SD	699,999	690,768
46.	DE	668,696	594,338
47.	ND	641,364	652,717
48.	VT	564,964	511,456
49.	AK	551,947	401,851
50.	WY	455,975	469,557
Total States		249,022,783	225,866,492
DC		609,909	638,333
TOTAL U.S.		249,632,692	226,504,825

World Eagle map. Data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census December 26, 1990 as reported in The New York Times, December 27, 1990, pp. 1 and B6 and December 28, 1990, p. A16.

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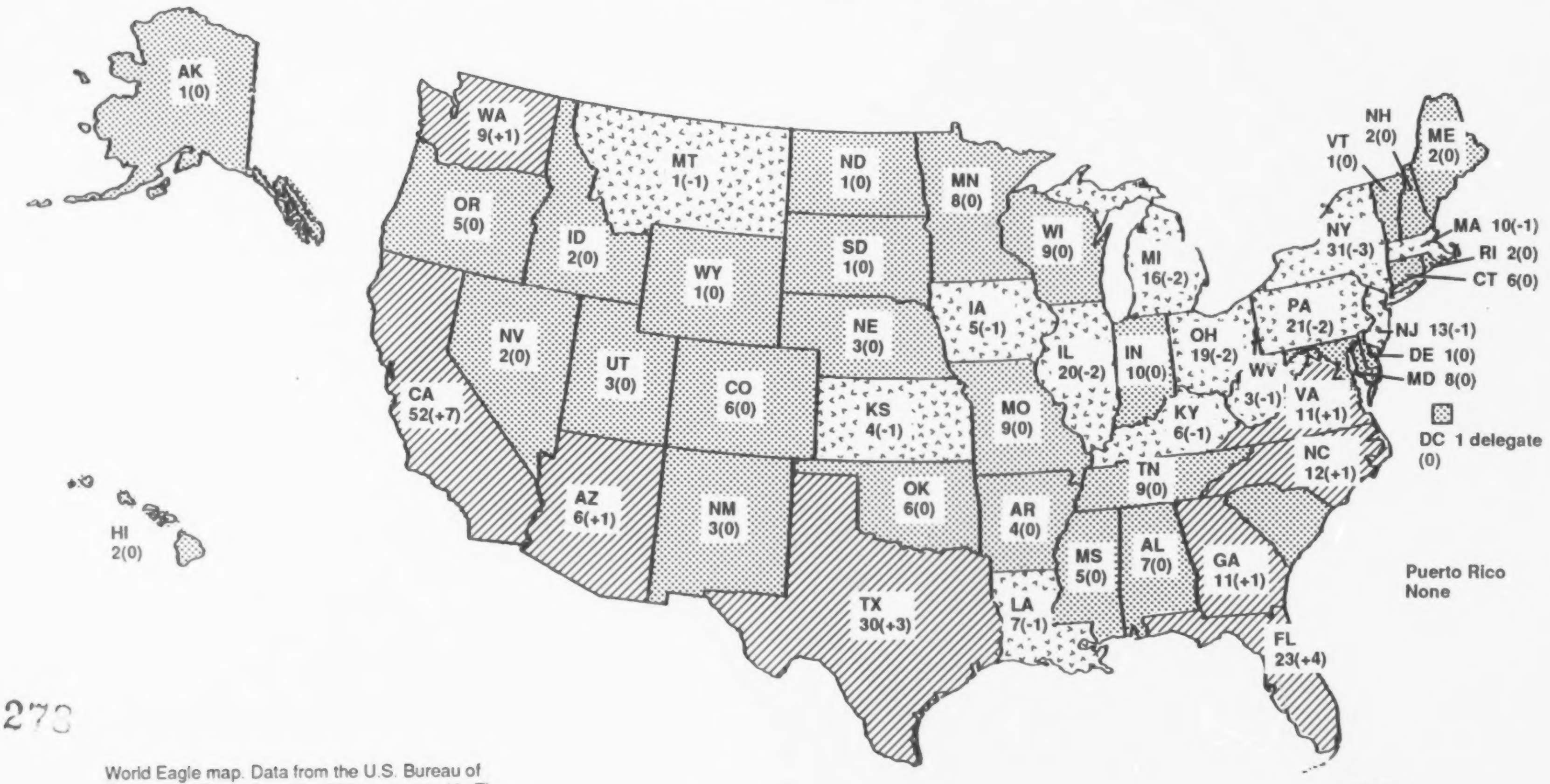
ONE RESULT OF THE CENSUS: SHIFTING CONGRESSIONAL SEATS

Shown below are the new numbers of Congressional seats apportioned to each state based on the Census Bureau's population figures for 1990 and the number gained or lost from 1980's figures.

The Commerce Department, parent agency of the Census Bureau, can still decide the April 1990 count was flawed and that it will make statistical adjustments to state totals and the national total. The Department has said it will determine by July 15 whether to do so.

▨ **Gained Congressional seat(s) from 1980** ▒ **Same number of seats** ⬚ **Lost seat(s)**


AK 1(0)
WA 9(+1)
MT 1(-1)
ND 1(0)
MN 8(0)
NH 2(0)
VT 1(0)
ME 2(0)
OR 5(0)
ID 2(0)
WY 1(0)
SD 1(0)
WI 9(0)
MI 16(-2)
NY 31(-3)
MA 10(-1)
RI 2(0)
CT 6(0)
IA 5(-1)
PA 21(-2)
NV 2(0)
NE 3(0)
IL 20(-2)
IN 10(0)
OH 19(-2)
NJ 13(-1)
DE 1(0)
MD 8(0)
UT 3(0)
CO 6(0)
WV 3(-1)
VA 11(+1)
CA 52(+7)
KS 4(-1)
MO 9(0)
KY 6(-1)
DC 1 delegate (0)
NC 12(+1)
TN 9(0)
OK 6(0)
AR 4(0)
AZ 6(+1)
NM 3(0)
HI 2(0)
MS 5(0)
AL 7(0)
GA 11(+1)
Puerto Rico None
LA 7(-1)
TX 30(+3)
FL 23(+4)

World Eagle map. Data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census December 26, 1990 as reported in The New York Times, December 27, 1990, p. B6.

CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES

The Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program is a nationwide, cooperative statistical effort of approximately 16,000 city, county, and state law enforcement agencies voluntarily reporting data on crimes brought to their attention. Since 1930, the FBI has administered the Program and issued periodic assessments of the nature and type of crime in the Nation. While the Program's primary objective is to generate a reliable set of criminal statistics for use in law enforcement administration, operation, and management, its data have over the years become one of the country's leading social indicators. The American public looks to UCR for information on fluctuations in the level of crime, while criminologists, sociologists, legislators, municipal planners, the press, and other students of criminal justice use the statistics for varied research and planning purposes.

Historical Background

Recognizing a need for national crime statistics, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) formed the Committee on Uniform Crime Records in the 1920s to develop a system of uniform police statistics. Establishing offenses known to law enforcement as the appropriate measure, the Committee evaluated various crimes on the basis of their seriousness, frequency of occurrence, pervasiveness in all geographic areas of the country, and likelihood of being reported to law enforcement. After studying state criminal codes and making an evaluation of the recordkeeping practices in use, the Committee in 1929 completed a plan for crime reporting which became the foundation of the UCR Program.

Seven offenses were chosen to serve as an Index for gauging fluctuations in the overall volume and rate of crime. Known collectively as the Crime Index, these offenses included the violent crimes of murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault and the property crimes of burglary, larceny-theft and motor vehicle theft. By congressional mandate, arson was added as the eighth Index offense in 1979.

During the early planning of the Program, it was recognized that the differences among criminal codes precluded a mere aggregation of state statistics to arrive at a national total. Further, because of the variances in punishment for the same offenses in different state codes, no distinction between felony and misdemeanor crimes was possible. To avoid these problems and provide nationwide uniformity in crime reporting, standardized offense definitions by which law enforcement agencies were to submit data, without regard for local statutes, were formulated. The definitions used by the Program are set forth in Appendix II of this publication.

In January, 1930, 400 cities representing 20 million inhabitants in 43 states began participating in the UCR Program. Congress enacted Title 28, Section 534, of the United States Code authorizing the Attorney General to gather crime information that same year. The Attorney General, in turn, designated the FBI to serve as the national clearinghouse for the data collected. Since that time, data based on uniform classification and procedures for reporting have been obtained from the Nation's law enforcement agencies...

(page 1)

Historically, the causes and origins of crime have been the subjects of investigation by varied disciplines. Some factors which have been determined to affect the volume and type of crime occurring from place to place are:

- Population density and degree of urbanization with size of locality and its surrounding area.
- Variations in composition of the population, particularly youth concentration.
- Stability of population with respect to resident's mobility, commuting patterns, and transient factors.
- Modes of transportation and highway system.
- Economic conditions, including median income, destitution, and job availability.
- Cultural conditions, such as educational, recreational, and religious characteristics.
- Family conditions with respect to divorce and family cohesiveness.
- Climate.
- Effective strength of law enforcement agencies.
- Administrative and investigative emphases of law enforcement.
- Policies of other components of the criminal justice system (i.e., prosecutorial, judicial, correctional, and probational).
- Attitudes of citizenry toward crime.
- Crime reporting practices of citizenry.

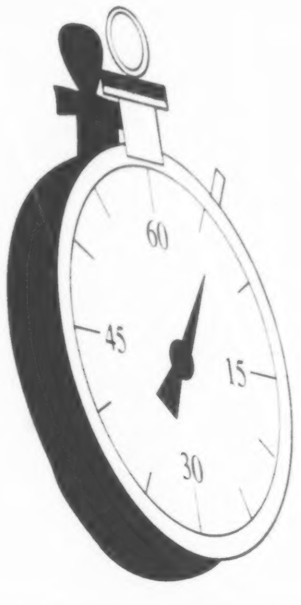
The Uniform Crime Reports give a nationwide view of crime based on statistics contributed by state and local law enforcement agencies. Population size is the only correlate of crime utilized in this publication. While the other factors listed above are of equal concern, no attempt is made to relate them to the data presented. *The reader is, therefore, cautioned against comparing statistical data of individual reporting units from cities, counties, states, or colleges and universities solely on the basis of their population coverage or student enrollment.*

(page v)

Source: U.S. Department of Justice. Federal Bureau of Investigation. Uniform Crime Reports 1989. Crime in the United States. Released August 5, 1990. Pp. 1 & v.

continued →

CRIME CLOCK 1989



- one **CRIME INDEX OFFENSE** every 2 seconds
  - one **VIOLENT CRIME** every 19 seconds
    - one **MURDER** every 24 minutes
    - one **FORCIBLE RAPE** every 6 minutes
    - one **ROBBERY** every 55 seconds
    - one **AGGRAVATED ASSAULT** every 33 seconds
  - one **PROPERTY CRIME** every 3 seconds
    - one **BURGLARY** every 10 seconds
    - one **LARCENY-THEFT** every 4 seconds
    - one **MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT** every 20 seconds

The crime clock should be viewed with care. Being the most aggregate representation of UCR data, it is designed to convey the annual reported crime experience by showing the relative frequency of occurrence of the Index Offenses. This mode of display should not be taken to imply a regularity in the commission of the Part I Offenses; rather, it represents the annual ratio of crime to fixed time intervals.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice. Federal Bureau of Investigation. Uniform Crime Reports 1989. Crime in the United States. Released August 5, 1990. P. 6.

continued

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CRIME INDEX OFFENSES continued

DEFINITIONS AND NUMBERS REPORTED

MURDER AND NONNEGLIGENT MANSLAUGHTER, as defined in the Uniform Crime Reporting Program, is the willful (nonnegligent) killing of one human being by another.
The classification of this offense, as for all other Crime Index offenses, is based solely on police investigation as opposed to the determination of a court, medical examiner, coroner, jury, or other judicial body. Not included in the count for this offense classification are deaths caused by negligence, suicide, or accident; justifiable homicides; and attempts to murder or assaults to murder, which are scored as aggravated assaults.

TREND: 21,500 offenses in 1989 (8.7 per 100,000 inhabitants) +4.0% versus 1988.

FORCIBLE RAPE, as defined in the Program, is the carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will. Assaults or attempts to commit rape by force or threat of force are also included; however, statutory rape (without force) and other sex offenses are excluded.

TREND: 94,504 offenses in 1989 (38.1 per 100,000 inhabitants) +2.2% versus 1988.

ROBBERY is the taking or attempting to take anything of value from the care, custody, or control of a person or persons by force or threat of force or violence and/or by putting the victim in fear.

TREND: 578,326 in 1989 (233.0 per 100,000 inhabitants) +6.5% versus 1988.

AGGRAVATED ASSAULT is an unlawful attack by one person upon another for the purpose of inflicting severe or aggravated bodily injury. This type of assault is usually accompanied by the use of a weapon or by means likely to produce death or great bodily harm. Attempts are included since it is not necessary that an injury result when a gun, knife, or other weapon is used which could and probably would result in serious personal injury if the crime were successfully completed.

TREND: 951,707 in 1989 (383.4 per 100,000 inhabitants) +4.6% versus 1988.

BURGLARY: The Uniform Crime Reporting Program defines burglary as the unlawful entry of a structure to commit a felony or theft. The use of force to gain entry is not required to classify an offense as burglary. Burglary in this Program is categorized into three subclassifications: forcible entry, unlawful entry where no force is used, and attempted forcible entry.

TREND: 3,168,170 (1,276.3 per 100,000) -1.6% versus 1988.

LARCENY-THEFT is the unlawful taking, carrying, leading, or riding away of property from the possession or constructive possession of another. It includes crimes such as shoplifting, pocket-picking, purse-snatching, thefts from motor vehicles, thefts of motor vehicle parts and accessories, bicycle thefts, etc., in which no use of force, violence, or fraud occurs. In the Uniform Crime Reporting Program, this crime category does not include embezzlement, "con" games, forgery, and worthless checks. Motor vehicle theft is also excluded from this category inasmuch as it is a separate Crime Index offense.

TREND: 7,872,442 (3,171.3 per 100,000 inhabitants) +2.2% versus 1988.

MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT is defined as the theft or attempted theft of a motor vehicle and includes the stealing of automobiles, trucks, buses, motorcycles, motorscooters, snowmobiles, etc. The definition excludes the taking of a motor vehicle for temporary use by those persons having lawful access.

TREND: 1,564,800 (630.4 per 100,000 inhabitants) +9.2% versus 1988.

ARSON is defined by the Uniform Crime Reporting Program as any willful or malicious burning or attempt to burn, with or without intent to defraud, a dwelling house, public building, motor vehicle or aircraft, personal property of another, etc.
Only fires determined through investigation to have been willfully or maliciously set are classified as arsons. Fires of suspicious or unknown origins are excluded.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice. Federal Bureau of Investigation. Uniform Crime Reports 1989. Crime in the United States. Released August 5, 1990. Pp. 7, 14, 17, 22, 26, 31, 37, 41.

THE RIGHT TO DIE: MEDICAL AND ETHICAL ASPECTS

The following article by Irene Stith-Coleman is reprinted with permission from The Library of Congress Congressional Research Service's CRS Review, September-October 1990. Pp. 5 & 6.

On December 14, 1990, a Jasper County (Missouri) Probate Judge, Charles Teel, ruled that there was clear evidence of Ms. Cruzan's wishes (to refuse unwanted medical treatment) and gave permission for her feeding tube to be removed. Doctors removed the feeding tube that day. Ms. Cruzan died on December 26.

Medical technology advances can be viewed as a mixed blessing that has introduced controversy over the appropriateness of allowing surrogate decision makers to halt medical treatment in "permanently" unconscious patients.

The Supreme Court's "right to die" decision that prevented the removal of life-sustaining nutrition and hydration technology from a permanently unconscious Nancy Cruzan has heightened the debate in this controversial area. The Court concurred with the State of Missouri that Ms. Cruzan's parents presented no clear and convincing evidence that discontinuation of nutrition and hydration would be the patient's wish. Moreover, the Court held that Missouri was therefore justified in safeguarding her life by requiring continuation of nutrition and hydration support. Much of the debate in this area concerns unresolved moral dilemmas relating to the appropriateness of surrogates (e.g., family, physicians, States) to make decisions regarding the protection of a permanently unconscious patient's right to select or refuse medical treatment. Also at issue is the putative role that surrogates have in safeguarding the preservation of human life in these patients.

Over the past decade American society has approached some consensus about the right of patients, or their surrogates, to refuse or have withdrawn a number of life-sustaining technologies. For example, surrogates such as family members are generally permitted to have technologies like respirators removed from a family member who is "whole-brain" dead and hence has no chance of recovering. Whole-brain dead victims are patients who have lost all brain functions, including those of the brain stem, which is responsible for breathing, circulation, and other involuntary functions, as well as the cerebral cortex, which controls voluntary movement and conscious functions such as awareness, feeling, and thinking.

No agreement, however, has been reached on the appropriateness of removing hydration and nutrition support from patients who are permanently unconscious, and in a so-called "persistent vegetative state." Patients such as these have lost all of their cognitive functions, but still have a functioning brain stem, and can therefore generally breathe without artificial respiration, and perform other involuntary functions. Such patients can live for years, and are usually fed artificially through a tube inserted in the nose and esophagus, or a tube surgically placed into the stomach or intestine.

Persistent Vegetative State

A persistent Vegetative State (PVS) generally represents a state in which the upper portion of the brain, the cerebral cortex, is seriously and irreversibly injured, while the integrity of the lower part, or brain stem, is still intact. PVS can result from a number of events including head injury (e.g., from automobile accidents), insufficient oxygen to the brain resulting in intracranial hypoxia (e.g., from cardiac arrest), or degenerative disease (e.g., Alzheimer's). Although it is unclear how many Americans are currently in a diagnosed PVS state, estimates indicate that there are approximately 5,000–10,000 (see table 1).

Reliable diagnosis is very important, and in many cases can be made with a high degree of medical certainty only after a period of several weeks to several months. A distinguishing characteristic of a vegetative state condition is that patients demonstrate chronic periods of being awake but not aware. During these periods, the eyes may open

continued

Irene Stith-Coleman is a specialist in life sciences with the CRS Science Policy Research Division.

Table 1

Selected Characteristics of PVS Patients in the United States

(1988 Estimates)

Number of patients	5,000–10,000
Life expectancy	37 years or more
Annual health cost (average)	$24,000–$120,000
Lifetime health cost (average)	$120 million–$4.4 billion

Source: Ronald E. Cranford, M.D., Hastings Center Report, February–March 1988).

Note: Number of patients does not include totally demented Alzheimer's patients, which would cumulatively total approximately 15,000–25,000 (Source: Council on Scientific Affairs and Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs, *J. Am. Medical Assoc.*, January 19, 1990).

Life expectancy based on longest reported documented survival.

and wander spontaneously; such patients may display brief smiles or utter unintelligible grunts and screams even though they are generally believed to experience no pain (higher brain function of the cerebral cortex is needed to experience pain). However, none of these actions is conscious or purposeful. Once a patient is in a vegetative state, the likelihood of this condition being permanent will depend on age, the cause of brain injury, and how long the vegetative state has already lasted. In general, prognosis is better for younger patients, particularly younger than 40 years, and patients whose injury is due to trauma or stroke, as opposed to cardiac arrest.

The Disputed Nature of Hydration and Nutrition

Some ethicists oppose the withdrawal of nutrition and hydration from any incompetent patient, including permanently unconscious ones. Withdrawal of water and food is viewed by opponents as a form of killing. Others believe that artificial hydration and nutrition is a medical treatment, and as such, its withdrawal should be no different from that of other medical treatments. In this case, surrogates should be permitted to have artificial feeding support removed. However, there is an important distinction between removing life-sustaining technology such as a respirator from a whole-brain dead patient, and withdrawing hydration and nutrition from a PVS patient. In the former, the patient's breathing is due to the artificial respirator and it ceases immediately after life support is withdrawn. In the latter, only the part of the brain that makes the patient a conscious, feeling, thinking person is dead, but not the lower brain, which controls breathing. Patients in the latter state can breathe on their own, and in fact, perform other involuntary functions. So, while such patients may no longer be thinking, conscious people, they still are viewed by some as living humans whose lives should be preserved. If hydration and nutrition are withdrawn, cessation of the remaining life functions (e.g., breathing) is not immediate.

Debate in this area undoubtedly will continue. Advance directives in the form of a living will or a documented designation of a proxy decision maker is the best way of attempting to assure that medical treatment will be in accord with the wishes of a patient that has lost the ability to make and express decisions. However, a number of factors may prevent establishment of clear prior directives. Policymakers are now deliberating on the implications of life-sustaining technologies at both the State (e.g. living will statutes) and Federal levels (the proposed S. 1766—Patient Self-Determination Act of 1989 sponsored by Sen. Danforth). ❖

PROFILES

Water Usage Is Allocated In Some Parts Of The U.S., And Usage Beyond Such Allocations Can Result In Dollar Penalties

The following article is reprinted from the Stanford University Campus Report, November 14, 1990. P. 3.

Water usage over the amount allocated to Stanford by its primary supplier has resulted in penalties of more than $200,000 and prompted increased conservation measures.

David Kaye of Operations and Maintenance said an unseasonably dry October helped cause Stanford to use 25.9 million gallons of water over the amount allowed by the San Francisco Water Department.

San Francisco sells water from the Hetch Hetchy reservoir system to dozens of municipalities. Last May, it reduced allocations for both its residential and institutional customers by an average of 25 percent.

Cheryl Davis of the San Francisco Water Department said Stanford was among numerous municipal customers having trouble with the quotas, which are based on 1987 usage patterns. October and November of that year were wet months, and the 1990 allocations for these months drop considerably from those in effect during the summer.

Debbie Katz of Palo Alto's public utilities department said that city had been staying within its allocation but expects to exceed the November quota by 30 to 35 percent.

"We're looking at fines ranging from $40,000 to $140,000 depending on how much rain we get," she said.

Since water over the limit is charged at a much higher rate per unit, Stanford got an extra $127,237 on its bill for October. Total penalties so far this year are $209,000.

"It's not just money down the drain," said Su Schaffer, vice president for administrative resources. "It's recoverable" under San Francisco's water "banking" system.

In other words, if Stanford uses less than its allocation in coming months, that amount will be credited to the shortfall.

"I think we can get there, with the help of the well and the other conservation methods in place," Schaffer said.

Starting on Monday, Nov. 5, Kaye switched to well water for all irrigation, and for at least two weeks, the University will turn on the sprinklers only in ecologically sensitive areas of the Inner Quad and Oval.

A pipeline project that will make water available from a second well is under way. The well water is slightly "harder" than that from Hetch Hetchy, but is otherwise pure and potable.

The job of installing meters at 830 faculty and staff residences recently was completed, Kaye said, and those meters are being monitored closely.

Although the University will not immediately ration water to individual residences, Kaye said, it "will pass on increased water costs, including penalties" to homeowners. Previously, water was included in "ground rent" paid by campus residents.

University vehicles are no longer being washed regularly.

Kaye said a "community awareness" campaign would be intensified, as would steps to introduce more water-efficient climate control systems in research facilities.

During previous drought years, Stanford installed low-flow shower heads and other water-saving devices in student residences. ■

Improving A City School

The following has been excerpted from the Harvard (University) Gazette, December 14, 1990. P. 9.

For the past decade, the Graduate School of Education (GSE) has initiated many programs to reconnect its teaching, research, and community outreach to the primary business of education: schools and schooling.

One of its most recent efforts is its partnership with Boston English High School. With collaborative help from GSE teachers and students, Boston English last year was restructured from one school into four "schools within schools," four smaller programs focusing on such concerns as bilingual and multicultural problems, greater personalization of the educational process, more integrated curriculum, and performance-based assessment of students.

The changes have paid off, say Boston English teachers. Teacher morale has soared because the changes allow them to be more involved in shaping the curriculum. This personalized instruction reaches more students' needs, and courses tailored to individual needs and talents are helping more students perceive learning as a rewarding experience. . .

Under the restructuring the school now has:

- a stronger program for ninth graders that aims to introduce students into the larger environment of the high school. The program helps the students work on academic and study skills and provide them with a strong sense of belonging. The ninth grade is a critical year in urban schools, the time when dropout rates soar;
- a new multicultural program for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders, among whom are 150 bilingual students and 150 students whose primary language is English;
- a traditional program for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders. The program includes a PACE program for those students who attend school regularly and maintain a C or better average;
- a new off-site Fenway Middle College High School at Bunker Hill Community College for students who may not have experienced success in school. About 120 high school students, aged 16 and up, are able to study in an adult setting and take courses in the humanities, sciences, social studies, and fine arts.

According to Conant Fellow Linda Nathan, assistant director of the Fenway program, "We seek to inspire students to remain in school and invest in their own career and personal development. A middle college brings a high school program into a college environment stressing the value of higher education and lifelong learning. Also, college students act as mentors and make it easier for Fenway students to see college as obtainable."

Nathan is particularly enthusiastic about internships with Children's Hospital where they combine work and schoolwork. "Students can experience success in school and success at work. It stresses the whole transition from school to job," she said. . .

continued

PROFILES continued

Who Belongs to What

Arab League—

Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen

Arab Maghreb Union—

Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Tunisia

GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council)—

Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates

GROUP OF 15—

Algeria, Argentina, Brazil, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Jamaica, Malaysia, Mexico, Nigeria, Peru, Senegal, Venezuela, Yugoslavia, Zimbabwe

OAPEC (Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries)—

Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates

OIC (Organization of the Islamic Conference)—

Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Benin, Brunei, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Cyprus, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, United Arab Emirates, Yemen

OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries)—

Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Venezuela

UN Security Council (for the Year 1991)

China, France, USSR, United Kingdom, United States (the five permanent members); and, until 12/31/91: Cote d'Ivoire, Cuba, Romania, Yemen, Zaire; and, until 12/31/92: Austria, Belgium, Ecuador, India, Zimbabwe.

U.S. Department of State Dispatch, September 10, 1990. And UN Press Information Office.

Further Illumination on Recycled Paper and the Environment

The following has been excerpted with permission from a recent issue of the corporate newsletter of the company which prints WORLD EAGLE.

"...the data is based on savings that occur when one ton of paper made from recycled fiber is used instead of one ton of paper made from virgin pulp.

To put this in perspective, you would use approximately one ton of paper in a run of 2000, 256 pages, 6" x 9" books printed on 60 lb. paper [World Eagle pages are 60 lb paper].

To begin with you would save approximately 17 mature trees. My own perception of recycled paper was that the savings of the trees was pretty much it but alas...that's just the beginning.

The really significant savings come from the lower use of electricity and water that is required to make our ton of recycled paper, as well as the lowering of released air pollutants and the lower volume that goes into your local landfill.

Here is the story on these savings.

It takes 4100 less kilowatt hours of energy to produce that ton of recycled paper than for the ton of virgin paper and that energy saving is enough to heat and air condition the average American home for six months.

The water savings in producing our ton of recycled paper is 7000 gallons. That's a lot of glasses of water, showers, flushings and car washings.

Moving on to air pollution, one ton of recycled paper produces 60 lbs less of air pollutant effluent than the ton of regular paper does. I can't relate this to an average household but it seems pretty significant.

The final environmental saving is a hot one right now. It is the volume savings that comes about when you recycle that ton of paper instead of sending it to your local landfill. That savings is three cubic yards.

If you had three cubic yards of anything dumped in your driveway or living room and had to move it in a wheel barrow, you would realize the significance of that amount. It is one big pile..."

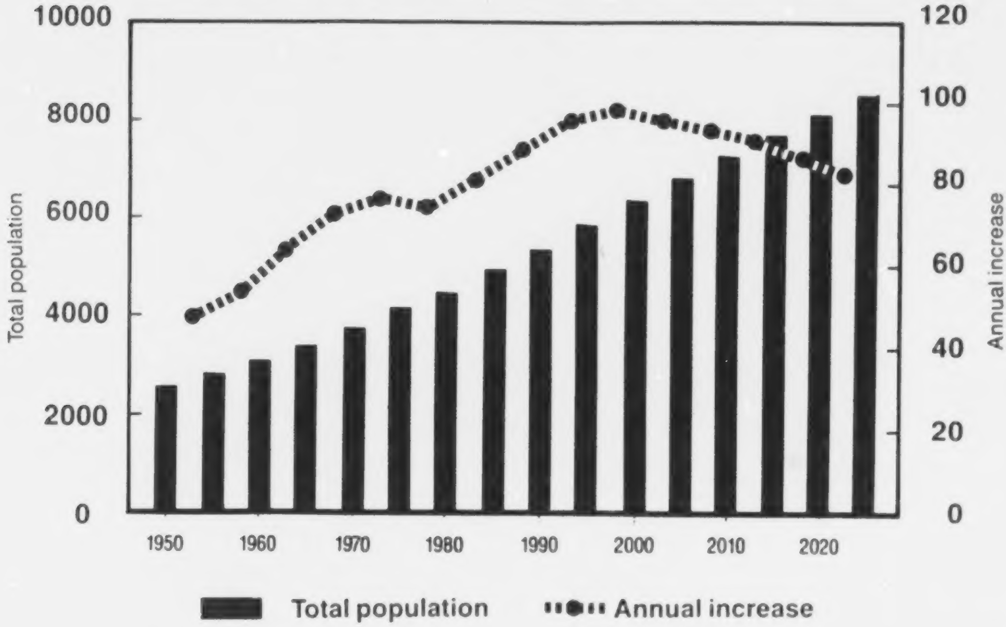
Question (posed one day before Iraq's invasion of Kuwait): Where are the largest oil reserves and who controls them?

Response*: The question of reserves is really dependent upon the price of oil. We can't speak about reserves apart from speaking about the price. Oil companies don't tell their geologists just to go out and find oil. They always have in mind: what oil can I find at a given price? Given the price structure that we have today, the largest producers of oil are the Soviet Union, the United States, and Saudi Arabia. But in terms of proven reserves, given the current price structure, the Middle East still seems to be the low-cost producer and the low-cost source of proven reserves.

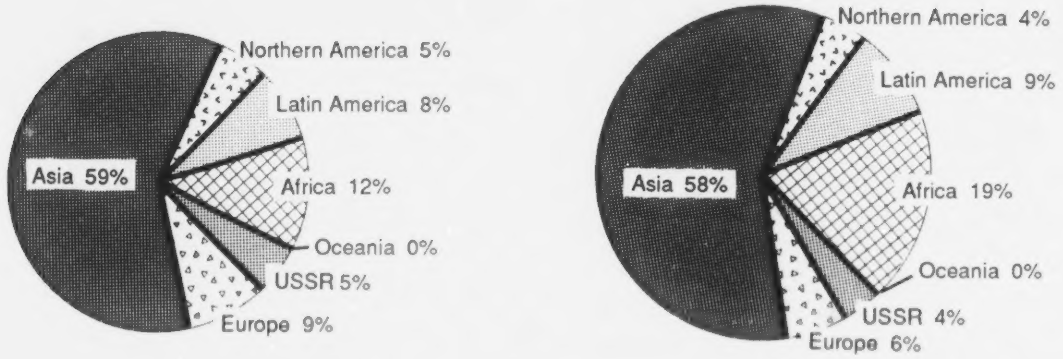
* by Ethan Kapstein, who is the John M. Olin Research Associate in National Security at the (Harvard University) Center for International Affairs, executive director of the Economics and National Security Program at the John M. Olin Institute for Strategic Studies at Harvard, and author of the new book, The Insecure Alliance: Energy Crises and Western Politics Since 1944 (Oxford University Press).

WORLD POPULATION TOTAL AND AVERAGE ANNUAL INCREASE, 1950-2025

-- in millions --



DISTRIBUTION OF WORLD POPULATION BY MAJOR REGIONS, 1990 AND 2025



1990
5,292 million

2025
8,504 million

World Eagle charts based on those in United Nations World Population Chart 1990.

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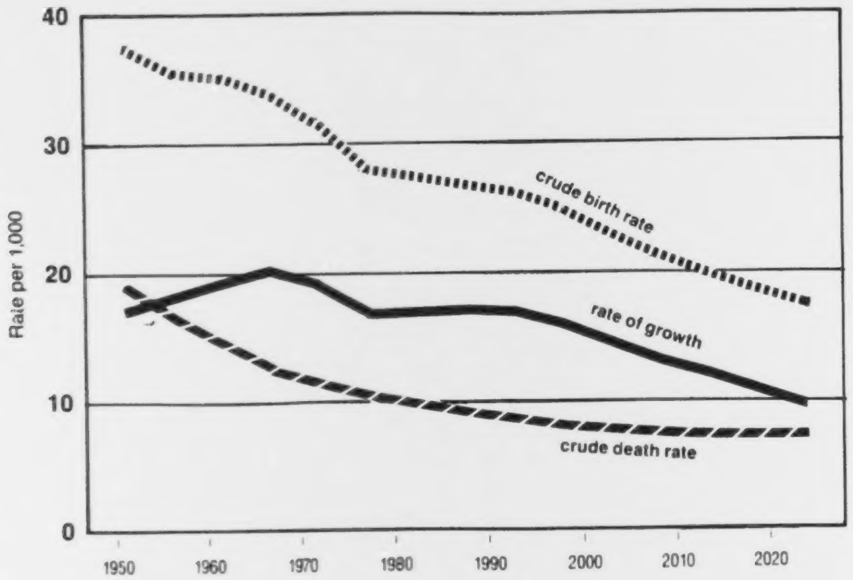
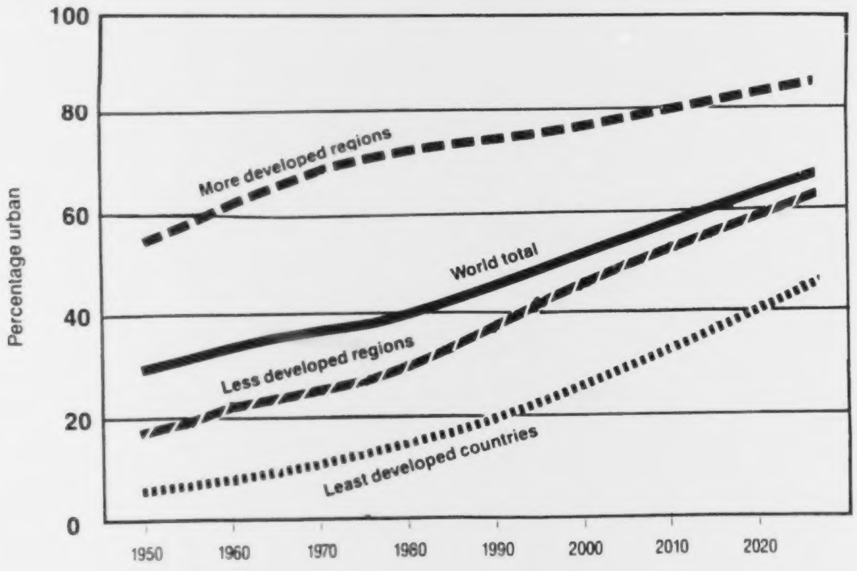
RATE OF GROWTH, CRUDE BIRTH RATE, AND CRUDE DEATH RATE OF THE WORLD POPULATION, 1950-2025



PERCENTAGE URBAN IN THE WORLD, MORE DEVELOPED AND LESS DEVELOPED REGIONS



More developed regions comprise Northern America, Japan, all regions of Europe, Australia, New Zealand and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Less developed regions comprise all regions of Africa, all regions of Latin America, all regions of Asia (excluding Japan), Melanesia, Micronesia and Polynesia.

Least developed countries as defined by the United Nations General Assembly, as of 1989, include 42 countries, of which 28 are in Africa, 9 in Asia, 1 in Latin America and 4 in Oceania.

World Eagle charts based on those in United Nations World Population Chart 1990.

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OPINION

President of Stanford University Says Children's Issues Should Be Made A Priority. Offers Six Solutions To Turn-Around A Jeopardized American Future.

The following article is reprinted from Stanford University's Campus Report, March 21, 1990. P.1.

American Society is jeopardizing its children's future because so many of its citizens are unwilling to delay gratification, Stanford President Donald Kennedy said Saturday, March 17, at the anniversary celebration of the Palo Alto Medical Research Foundation.

Inadequate social welfare, underinvestment in education, a health sector that spends too much at the end of the life cycle and too little at the beginning, and financial institutions that trade long-term stability for short-term gains "are the hallmarks of a society that is concentrating on its present and ignoring its successor generation," Kennedy said.

All there is to pass on to the next generation is "one small planet, a dwindling set of non-renewable resources, an economy and a set of social arrangements."

But "we aren't the owners of these assets; we're more like trustees, and they are like an endowment."

Withdrawing too much from that endowment leaves the next generation with less than it is entitled to, he said.

"Can we forgo a reward today in order to reap a larger one tomorrow? Can we behave like prudent fiduciaries and preserve the value of the endowment?" he asked.

"That is one of the most important tests we face as a society," Kennedy told an audience of 1,500 gathered in Memorial Auditorium to hear about "America's Future in the Next Millennium." The program honored the 60th anniversary of the Palo Alto Clinic and the 40th anniversary of the Palo Alto Research Institute.

Reasserting claims now for the next generation is timely because "freedom is racing around the world at a bewildering and inspiring speed, leaving behind it here the hope of a 'peace dividend' that the United States could use in helping the neglected, restoring initiative and investing in the future."

Kennedy said that the economic death of socialism is generating new enthusiasm for market mechanisms, but individual needs, personal liberty and freedom of choice must be balanced against social concerns.

"The special quality of American society, which de Tocqueville saw with great clarity, is one of careful poise between two sometimes conflicting sets of commitments — to individual rights on the one hand, and to societal obligation on the other."

He said it would be wrong to neglect duty and responsibility to society in the rush of enthusiasm for free markets and free choice.

Judging by the condition of such capital assets as transportation systems, utilities, research structures, health care institutions and educational facilities, "the inheritance we (will) provide for the next generation" is not in good condition, Kennedy said.

While the country has made impressive progress rehabilitating some environmental disasters — such as Lake Erie — "we have not begun to deal with the legacies of toxic waste dumps, acid rain and other hazards we are passing along."

Unworkable cities

He said many of America's great cities, especially in the Northeast, are "pathetically unworkable" compared to French and Italian cities once considered backward. "Utilities and transportation systems are inadequate or, in the worst cases, overwhelmed.

"There is also an accumulating shortfall in the quality of science buildings and capital equipment in our universities, now estimated at several tens of billions of dollars."

Meanwhile, the health care system is in decay because of state and federal reimbursement policies that do not cover the average cost of care, Kennedy said. Government has adopted a "bizarre" policy in which health care for those who cannot pay is "supported by the well-to-do ill instead of the well-to-do healthy. I think we would not have thought this up if we were starting from scratch."

> **'Every person who buys or takes (drugs) is financing political repression and terrorism abroad and drive-by murder at home'**

He said that out of sense of social obligation, Stanford Hospital has a MediCal contract that reimburses it for less than the marginal cost of each patient. "Naturally, the fiduciary duty of our directors will eventually collide with the desire of the state of California to extract our cooperation on the cheap, and we will pass.

"There is a point at which you just give up."

Health expenditures are heavily biased toward older people, Kennedy noted, and now absorb more resources than the category of social expenditure directed mainly at children, namely education. While health and education each took about the same share of the gross national product in 1970, health now takes more than half again as much, he said.

"Nor have we done enough research to secure our children against the suite of problems that constitute the major hazard for the teenage years — suicide, homicide, accident."

He said the growing problem of drugs and drug addiction could not be solved by policies aimed at the "supply side of the problem instead of the demand side."

That focus has now achieved a "ludicrous climax," Kennedy said, in a scheme promoted by "philosopher-turned-entomologist William Bennett, who proposes to drop millions of tiny caterpillars of the genus *Malubia* to munch their way through the coca plantations of Peru." Kennedy predicted that Peruvian peasants, who earn eight times as much from coca as any other crop, would emerge victorious using the pesticide malathion to save their lucrative crop.

Aside from the fact that "Bennett's own style invites one to rib him a little," the proposal is typical of the desire to "find a solution at the supply end of this problem instead of searching for it in ourselves."

Kennedy said some self-denial would go a long way toward solving the drug problem.

continued

OPINION continued

"Every person who buys or takes (drugs) is financing political repression and terrorism abroad and drive-by murder at home; and every one of them ought to be a pariah in this society."

Health maintenance organizations such as the Palo Alto Clinic fit well with the notion of gratification delay, Kennedy said, and the idea should be extended to other areas, such as Wall Street, where financial takeovers in the last decade have created a potential liability for future generations.

Six solutions

Kennedy suggested six possibilities to turn around the "serious lesion in fiduciary duty":

- Require analysis of who, by age cohort, would be helped and who would be hurt by new social programs. "As part of this program to inform and educate, the Office of Management and Budget should be asked to do a cross-cut on each year's federal budget to show changed impact on young and old Americans."
- Establish a separate federal capital budget to distinguish short-term and long-term investments and keep them from being substituted for each other.
- Make children's issues a priority, both at the state and national levels. California — a state that is "supposed to be more enlightened than average" — ranks near the bottom in services to children.
- Report annually on national savings and investment patterns, and develop policies that encourage savings and investment instead of consumption.
- End the "terrible grip that liability laws have had on innovation and risk-taking in our national life. Our capacity to do almost *anything* is quenched by a sense of vulnerability to legal consequence. Armies of lawyers, a judicial system that is hypersensitive to the rights of plaintiffs, and a fear of outrageous awards that induces defensive settlements — these are the features of a structure that makes it too easy to sue."
- Encourage corporate investment, especially in research and development, by protecting against "attack and dismemberment. Management needs to be accountable to owners, but not at the expense of this much vulnerability.

"We are the designated custodians of the scientists who haven't been appointed yet, the experiments that haven't been done yet, and the children who haven't been born yet.

"To the rest of society, we need to spread the wisdom of fiduciary dedication," Kennedy said. ❖

"While Americans say the squeaky wheel gets the grease, in Japan the maxim is "the nail that stands out gets pounded down." And while American children who won't finish their food are given stern warnings not to waste it, Japanese children are told, "Think how bad the farmer who raised this food for you will feel if you don't eat it."

Such contrasts have emerged from a rapidly growing body of scientific studies that show how deeply individualism runs in most Western cultures, and how shallow that vein is in most others.

The new cross-cultural studies are confirming what many observers have long noticed: that the cardinal American virtues of self-reliance and individualism are at odds with those of most non-Western cultures. They also suggest that the nature of American individualism has been changing toward a greater emphasis on raw self-interest, and that the rise of individualism in a society goes hand in hand with economic growth..."

The opening three paragraphs of an article by Daniel Goleman
in The New York Times, December 25, 1990. P. 37.

"Have the best minds in our society addressed themselves to the problems of primary and secondary education? I don't think so. We must address these problems with backing from the university, and perhaps on an interuniversity basis."

Henry Rosovsky, Acting Dean of the Faculty of Arts and
Sciences, Harvard University. October 5, 1990.

The word is the greatest power human beings have. With words you can wound others or make them happy -- for life.

Asineq, an East Greenlander, as quoted in Arctic Languages:
An Awakening. Edited by Dirmid R. F. Collis. Unesco 1990.

"If we don't address the issue of global ecology, we won't have to worry about the other issues."

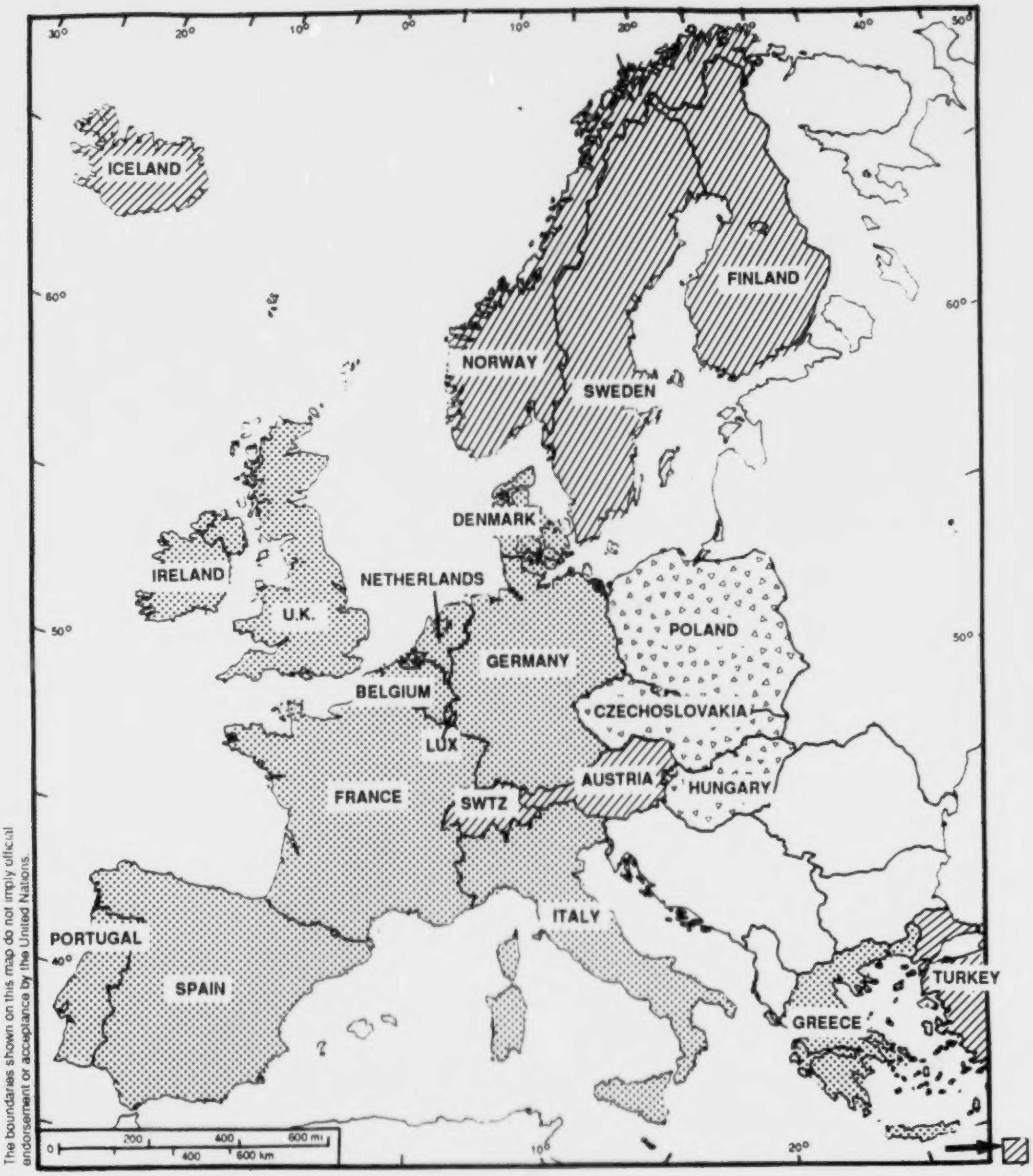
Carlos Salinas de Gortari, president of Mexico. As quoted in
World Development Forum, August 31, 1990.

TOWARD A UNITED STATES OF EUROPE

░ 12 current European Community members

▨ 8 likely to seek membership before 1995

△ 3 hoping to apply by 1995 and to join between 1995 and 1999



30°
20°
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20°
30°
40°
50°
60°
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40°
ICELAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
DENMARK
IRELAND
U.K.
NETHERLANDS
BELGIUM
LUX
GERMANY
POLAND
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
FRANCE
SWTZ
ITALY
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
GREECE
TURKEY
0
200
400
600 mi
400
600 km

The boundaries shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

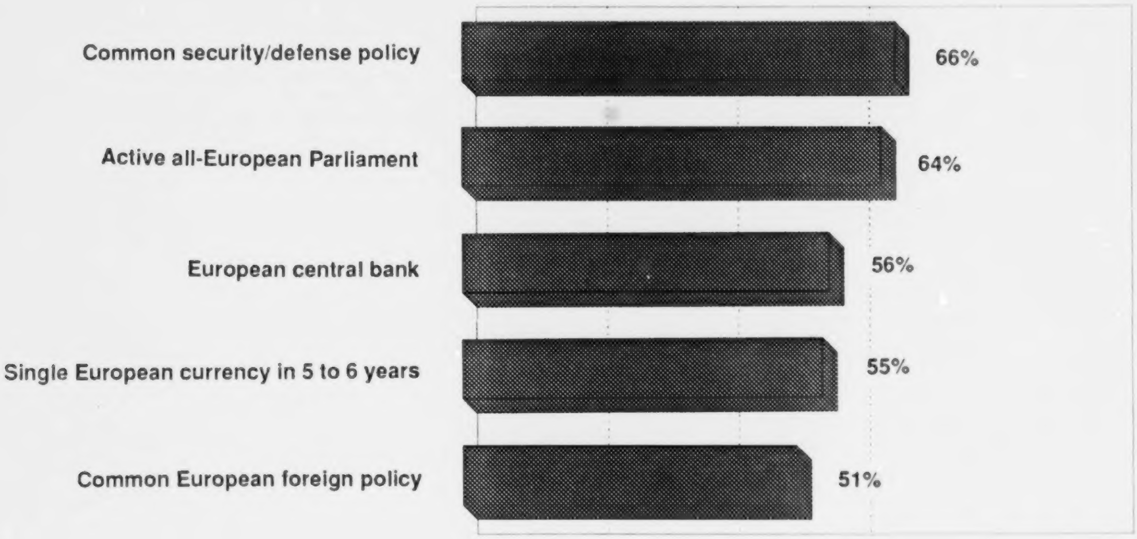
Not shown but also likely:
Cyprus

World Eagle map. Sources, as cited in The Boston Globe, December 16, 1990: Financial Times, and interviews with government officials.

continued →

OPINIONS CONCERNING A UNITED EUROPE

Percentage of Europeans in October 1990 Who Support:

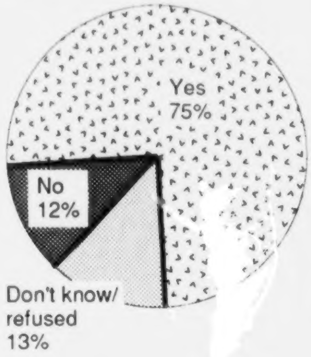


Source: European Commission. Based on interviews with 12,000 citizens in the 12 EC countries in October, 1990.

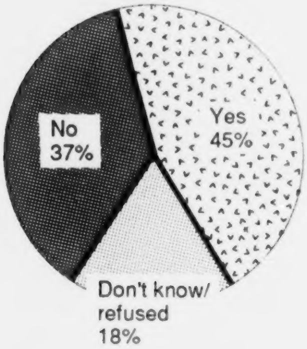
U.S. Views of a United Europe

In light of the growing movement towards European Jnited, the U.S. should...

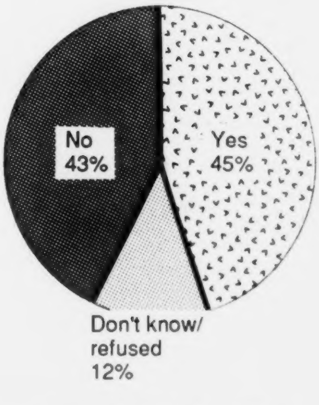
...establish a "special relationship" with the European Community as a whole.



...establish "special relationships" with specific European counties.



...gradually withdraw from European affairs.



Source: European Commission. 1990 survey.

World Eagle charts based on ones in The Boston Globe, December 16, 1990, page 76, which cited sources shown above.

THE KENNEDY CENTER HONORS: A CELEBRATION OF THE PERFORMING ARTS

The John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts announced today (September 28, 1978) that it will present Kennedy Center Honors annually to individuals who throughout their lifetime have made significant contributions to American culture through the performing arts.

The primary criterion in the selection of the Honors recipients is "artistic achievement as performer, composer, choreographer, playwright, director or conductor." Dance, music, theater, opera, motion pictures and television are considered. The Honors are not designated by art form or category of artistic achievement; the selection process, over time, will provide balance among the various arts and artistic disciplines.

1978
Marian Anderson, contralto, born 1902 in Philadelphia, PA
Fred Astaire, dancer, born 1899 in Omaha, NE
George Balanchine, choreographer, born 1904 in Russia
Richard Rodgers, composer, born 1902 in New York City
Artur Rubinstein, pianist, born 1887 in Poland. First U.S. tour in 1906

1979
Aaron Copland, composer, born 1900 in Brooklyn, NY
Ella Fitzgerald, singer, born 1918 in Newport News, VA
Henry Fonda, actor, born 1905 in Grand Island, NE
Martha Graham, dancer-choreographer, born 1894 in Pittsburgh, PA
Tennessee Williams, playwright, born 1911 in Columbus, MS

1980
Leonard Bernstein, composer and conductor, born 1918 in Lawrence, MA
James Cagney, movie actor, born 1904 in New York City
Agnes DeMille, choreographer, born 1909 in New York City
Lynn Fontanne, actress, born 1887 in Essex County, England
Leontyne Price, soprano, born 1927 in Laurel, MS

1981
Count Basie, band leader, born 1904 in Red Bank, NJ
Cary Grant, film actor, born 1904 in Bristol, England
Helen Hayes, stage and screen actress, born 1900 in Washington, DC
Jerome Robbins, choreographer and dancer, born 1918 in New York City
Rudolf Serkin, pianist, born 1903 in Eger, Bohemia, now Czechoslovakia

1982
George Abbott, director/playwright, born 1887 in Forestville, NY
Lillian Gish, actress, born 1896 in Springfield, OH
Benny Goodman, band leader/clarinetist, born 1909 in Chicago
Gene Kelly, dancer/choreographer, director, born 1912 in Pittsburgh, PA
Eugene Ormandy, conductor, born 1899 in Budapest

1983
Katherine Dunham, dancer/choreographer, born 1910 in Joliet, IL
Elia Kazan, director, born 1909 in Constantinople
Frank Sinatra, singer/actor, born 1915 in Hoboken, NJ
James Stewart, actor, born 1908 in Indiana, PA
Virgil Thomson, composer/critic, born 1896 in Kansas City, MO

1984
Lena Horne, singer/actress, born 1917 in Brooklyn NY
Danny Kaye, actor/singer, born 1913 in Brooklyn, NY
Gian Carlo Menotti, composer/director, born 1911 in Cardegliano, Italy
Arthur Miller, playwright, born 1915 in New York City
Isaac Stern, violinist, born 1920 in Kreminiecz, Russia

1985
Merce Cunningham, dancer/choreographer, born 1922+/- in Centralia, WA
Irene Dunne, actress, born 1904 in Louisville, KY
Bob Hope, actor, born 1903 in London
Alan Jay Lerner, lyricist/playwright, born 1918 in New York City
Frederick Loewe, composer, born 1904 in Vienna
Beverly Sills, singer, born 1929 in Brooklyn, NY

1986
Lucille Ball, actress, born 1911 in Jamestown, NY
Ray Charles, musician, born 1930 in Albany, GA
Hume Cronyn, actor, born 1911 in London, Ontario, Canada
Jessica Tandy, actress, born 1909 in London, England
Yehudi Menuhin, violinist, born 1916 in New York City
Antony Tudor, choreographer, born 1909 in London, England

1987
Perry Como, singer, born 1913 in Canonsburg, PA
Bette Davis, actress, born 1908 in Lowell, MA
Sammy Davis, Jr., entertainer, born 1925 in New York City
Nathan Milstein, violinist, born 1904 in Odessa, Russia
Alwin Nikolais, choreographer-director, composer, designer, born 1912 in Southington, CT

1988
Alvin Ailey, choreographer, born 1931 in Rogers, TX
George Burns, actor, born 1896 in New York City
Myrna Loy, actress, born 1905 in Helena, MT
Alexander Schneider, violinist, born 1908 in Vilna, Poland
Roger L. Stevens, founder of the National Endowment for the Arts and the Kennedy Center

continued →

THE KENNEDY CENTER HONORS continued

1989

Harry Belafonte, singer/actor, born 1927 in New York City
Claudette Colbert, actress, born 1903 in Paris, France
Alexandra Danilova, dancer, born 1904 in St. Petersburg, Russia
Mary Martin, actress/singer, born 1913 in Weatherford, TX
William Schuman, composer/teacher, born 1910 in New York City

1990

Dizzy Gillespie, jazz trumpeter, born 1917 in Cheraw, SC
Katharine Hepburn, actress, born 1907 in Hartford, CT
Risë Stevens, mezzo-soprano, born 1913 in New York City
Jule Styne, composer, born 1905 in London, England
Billy Wilder, writer/director, born 1906 near Vienna, Austria

Source: The John F. Kennedy Center For The Performing Arts. Washington, DC 20566.

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November	**The Developing World**	**April**	**World Product and Trade**
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January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**Europe: Looking Toward December 1992**

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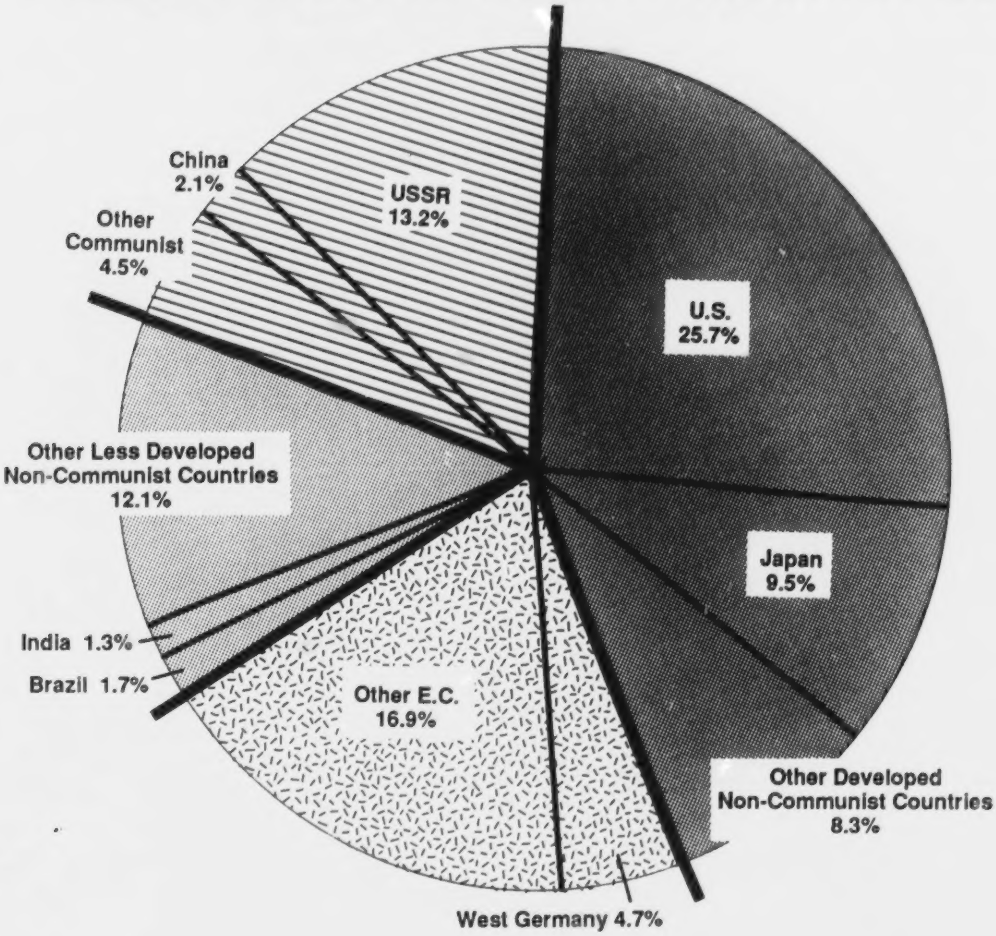
HERE'S AN ESTIMATE OF WHO PRODUCED THE WORLD'S GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT IN 1989



TOTAL WORLD GNP FOR 1989: 20.2 TRILLION 1989 US$

- ▨ European Community (21.6%)
- ▩ All Other Developed, Non-Communist Countries (43.5%)
- ▧ Communist Countries (19.8%)
- ░ Less Developed, Non-Communist Countries (15.1%)

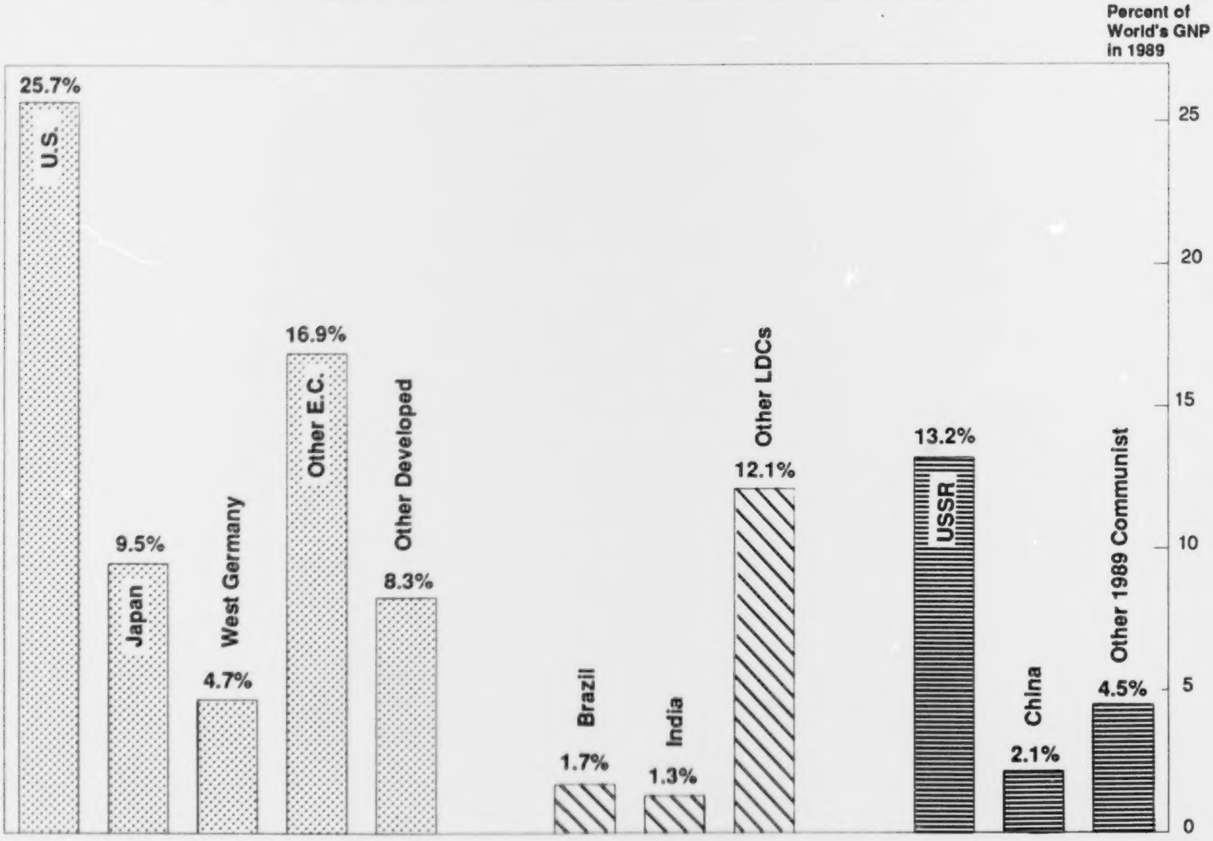
World Eagle chart based on data from U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990. Figure 5, P. 15.

Two Ways of Displaying The Same Data
Version #2. See Version #1 on Preceding Page.

HERE'S AN ESTIMATE OF WHO PRODUCED THE WORLD'S GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT IN 1989

The world's "formal" Gross National Product for 1989 was estimated, by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, at US $20.2 trillion.

In addition, there is the value, not reflected here, of the world's underground economy, estimated variously from 3 or 4 percent to as high as 33 percent of the world's actual total production. "Under the table and off the books, millions of persons worldwide are engaged in jobs that evade the relevant tax and labor laws -- frequently with an official scowl, but a tacit wink, from their governments," says a study released in 1988 by Johns Hopkins University.



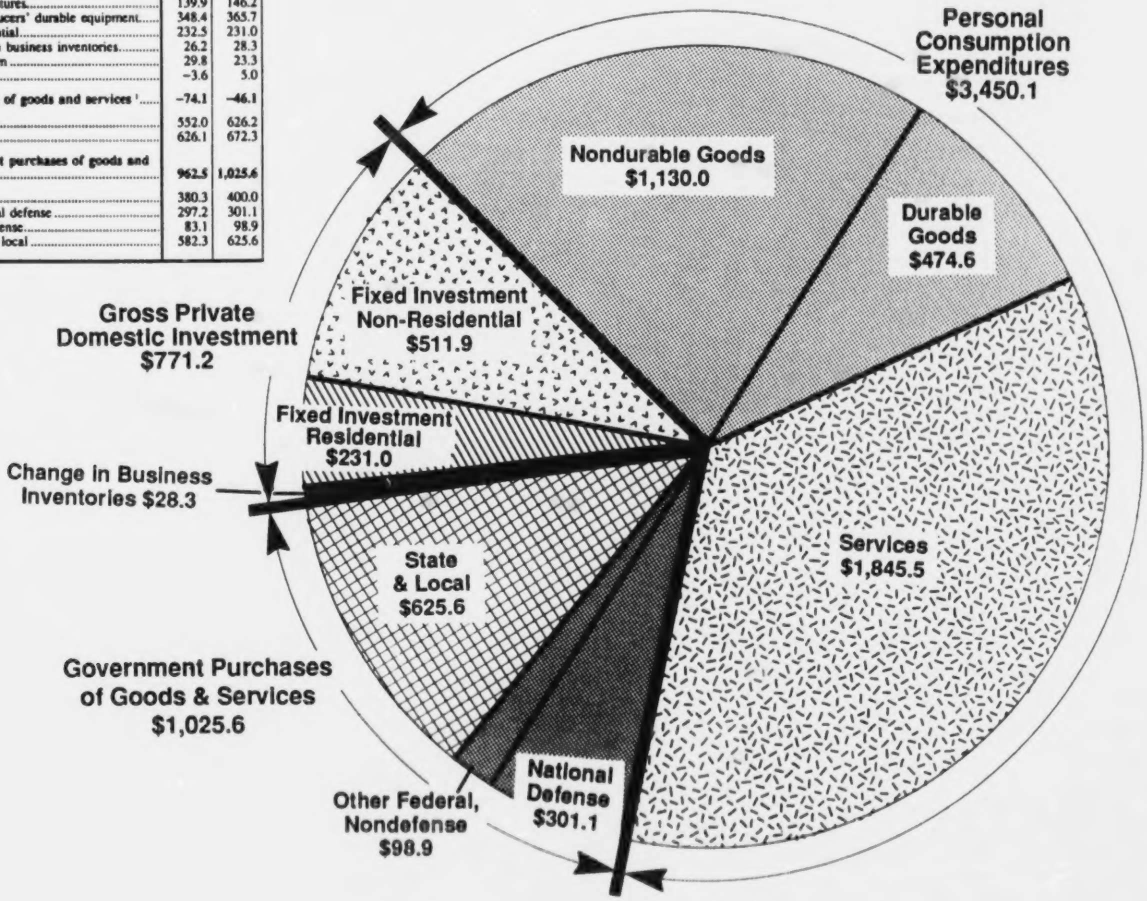
World Eagle chart based on data from Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990. Figure 5, P. 15.

U.S. GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT IN 1989

The Major Constituent Parts Shown in the Chart Below Total $5,246.9 Billion. That Figure Is Reduced by -- $46.1 Billion (the U.S. Net Exports of Goods and Services) to yield the Gross National Product Figure of $5,200.8 Billion.

-All figures billions of dollars-

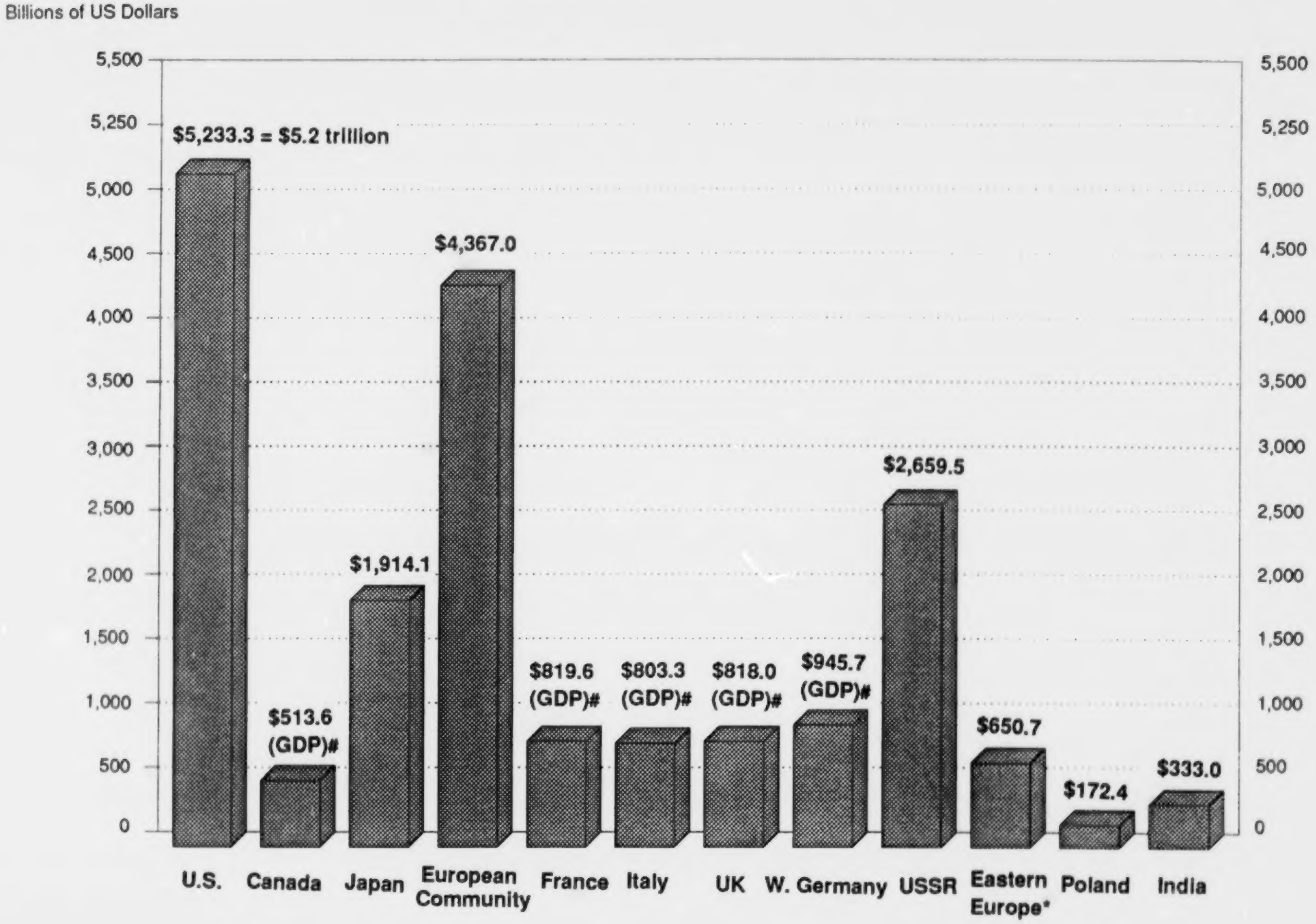
	1988	1989
Gross national product	**4,873.7**	**5,200.8**
Personal consumption expenditures [1]	**3,238.2**	**3,450.1**
Durable goods	457.5	474.6
Nondurable goods	1,060.0	1,130.0
Services [1]	1,720.7	1,845.5
Gross private domestic investment	**747.1**	**771.2**
Fixed investment	720.8	742.9
Nonresidential	488.4	511.9
Structures	139.9	146.2
Producers' durable equipment	348.4	365.7
Residential	232.5	231.0
Change in business inventories	26.2	28.3
Nonfarm	29.8	23.3
Farm	−3.6	5.0
Net exports of goods and services [1]	**−74.1**	**−46.1**
Exports [1]	552.0	626.2
Imports [1]	626.1	672.3
Government purchases of goods and services	**962.5**	**1,025.6**
Federal	380.3	400.0
National defense	297.2	301.1
Nondefense	83.1	98.9
State and local	582.3	625.6



Above Figures Total . . . . $5246.9 billion
Less . . . . -- $46.1 (Net Balance of Exports)
Yields Gross National Product Figure of . . . $5,200.8

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Survey of Current Business. September 1990. Table 1.1, P. 3.

U.S GNP MUCH BIGGER THAN OTHER COUNTRIES'
Estimated Gross National Product for 1989, In Billions US$



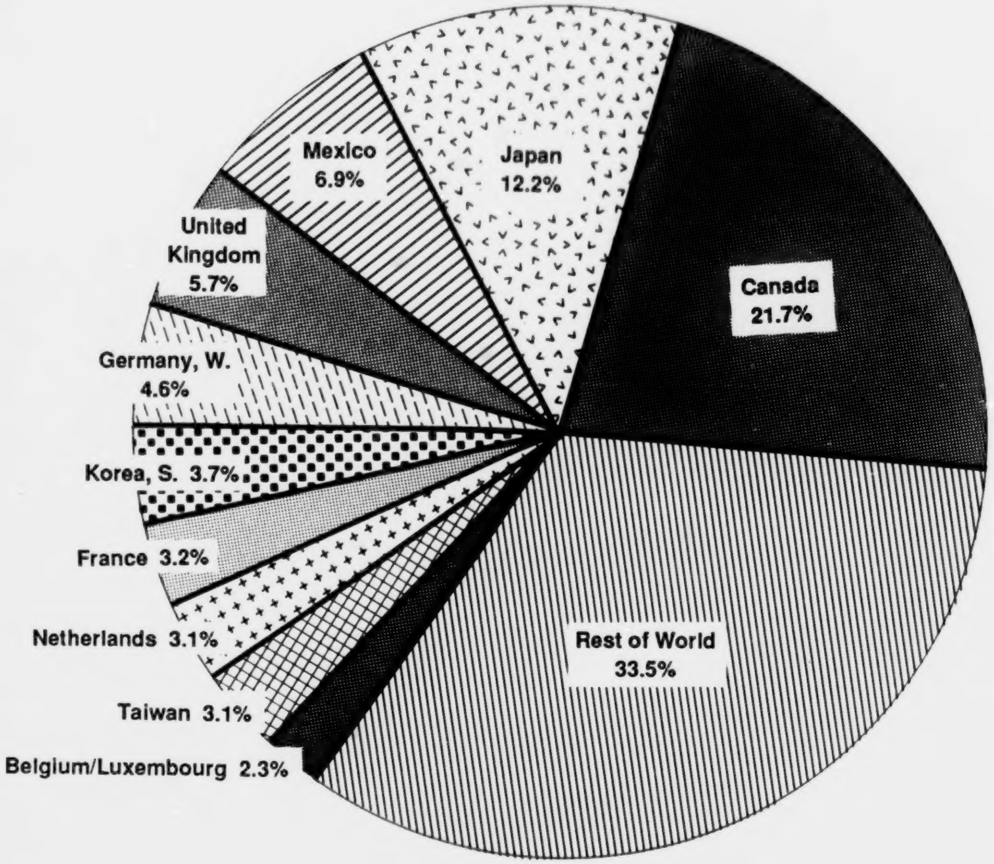
*Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania

#GDP = Gross Domestic Product

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990.

THE TOP PURCHASERS OF U.S. MERCHANDISE EXPORTS IN 1989

(Domestic and Foreign Merchandise, F.a.s.; Millions of Dollars)



Total: $363,812,000,000

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
Canada	$78,809	21.7%
Japan	44,494	12.2
Mexico	24,982	6.9
United Kingdom	20,837	5.7
Germany, W.	16,862	4.6
Korea, S.	13,459	3.7
France	11,579	3.2
Netherlands	11,364	3.1
Taiwan	11,335	3.1
Belgium/Luxembourg	8,522	2.3

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
Australia	$8,331	2.3%
Singapore	7,344	2.0
Italy	7,215	2.0
Hong Kong	6,291	1.7
China	5,755	1.6
Switzerland	4,911	1.3
Brazil	4,804	1.3
Spain	4,796	1.3
USSR	4,284	1.2
Saudi Arabia	3,574	1.0
All Others		17.8

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 31 & 46.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration and Bureau of the Census.

THE TOP 50 PURCHASERS OF U.S MERCHANDISE EXPORTS AND THE TOP 50 SUPPLIERS OF U.S MERCHANDISE IMPORTS

--Ranked for 1989--

The Top Purchasers

(Domestic and Foreign Merchandise, F.a.s.)
Millions of U.S. Dollars

Countries	1987	1988	1989
Canada	59,814	71,622	78,809
Japan	28,249	37,725	44,494
Mexico	14,582	20,628	24,982
United Kingdom	14,114	18,364	20,837
Germany, West	11,748	14,348	16,862
Korea, South	8,099	11,232	13,459
France	7,943	9,970	11,579
Netherlands	8,217	10,117	11,364
Taiwan	7,413	12,129	11,335
Belgium/Luxembourg	6,189	7,410	8,522
Australia	5,495	6,973	8,331
Singapore	4,053	5,768	7,344
Italy	5,530	6,775	7,215
Hong Kong	3,983	5,687	6,291
China	3,497	5,021	5,755
Switzerland	3,151	4,196	4,911
Brazil	4,040	4,266	4,804
Spain	3,148	4,215	4,796
USSR	1,480	2,769	4,284
Saudi Arabia	3,373	3,776	3,574
Sweden	1,894	2,700	3,138
Venezuela	3,586	4,612	3,025
Malaysia	1,897	2,141	2,870
Israel (incl Gaza)	3,130	3,244	2,828
Egypt	2,210	2,332	2,612
Ireland	1,810	2,183	2,483
India	1,463	2,500	2,458
Thailand	1,544	1,962	2,288
Philippines	1,599	1,878	2,202
Turkey	1,482	1,850	2,003
Colombia	1,412	1,754	1,924
South Africa	1,281	1,688	1,659
Dominican Republic	1,142	1,359	1,645
Chile	796	1,066	1,414
Indonesia	767	1,059	1,247
United Arab Emirates	619	705	1,238
Iraq	683	1,157	1,169
Pakistan	733	1,090	1,134
New Zealand	819	940	1,117
Denmark	893	969	1,051
Argentina	1,090	1,054	1,039
Norway	842	929	1,037
Jamaica	601	762	1,006
Finland	514	761	969
Portugal	581	749	925
Costa Rica	582	696	882
Austria	549	746	873
Kuwait	505	683	853
Bahamas	782	740	772
Algeria	426	730	756

The Top Suppliers

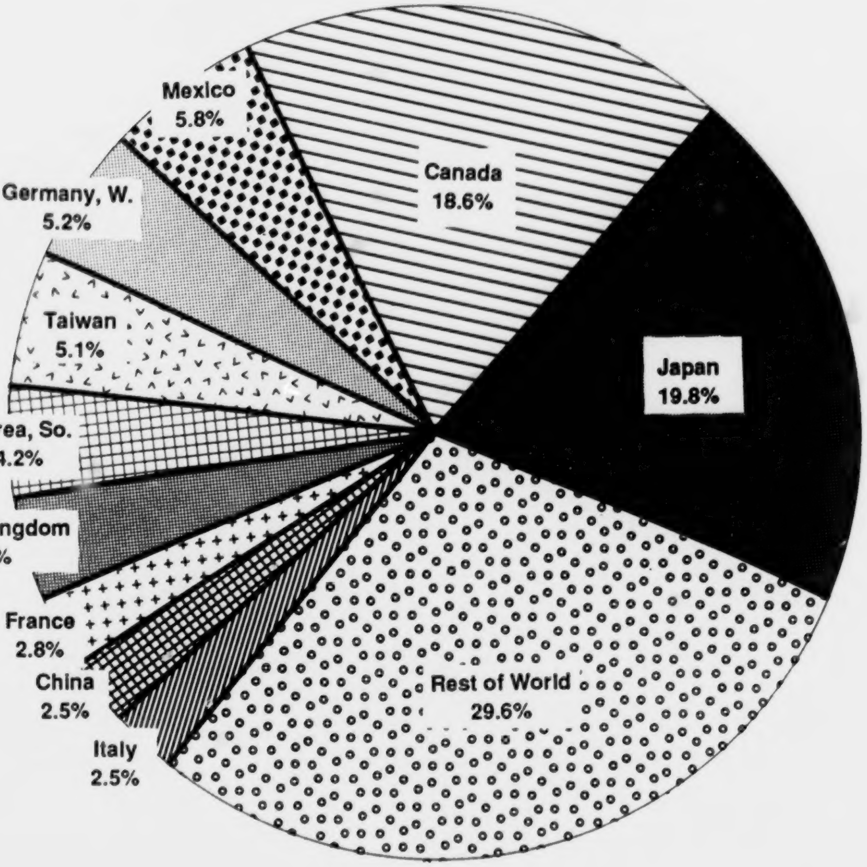
(General Imports, Customs)
Millions of U.S. Dollars

Countries	1987	1988	1989
Japan	84,575	89,519	93,553
Canada	71,085	81,398	87,953
Mexico	20,271	23,260	27,162
Germany, West	27,069	26,362	24,833
Taiwan	24,622	24,714	24,313
Korea, South	16,987	20,105	19,737
United Kingdom	17,341	17,976	18,319
France	10,730	12,508	13,014
China	6,293	8,511	11,990
Italy	11,040	11,576	11,933
Hong Kong	9,854	10,238	9,722
Singapore	6,201	7,973	9,003
Brazil	7,865	9,294	8,410
Saudi Arabia	4,433	5,620	7,157
Venezuela	5,579	5,157	6,771
Nigeria	3,573	3,278	5,284
Sweden	4,758	4,985	4,892
Netherlands	3,964	4,559	4,810
Malaysia	2,921	3,692	4,744
Switzerland	4,249	4,611	4,714
Belgium/Luxembourg	4,171	4,493	4,555
Thailand	2,220	3,210	4,379
Australia	3,006	3,541	3,873
Indonesia	3,394	3,150	3,529
Spain	2,839	3,204	3,317
India	2,529	2,940	3,314
Israel (incl Gaza)	2,639	2,972	3,239
Philippines	2,264	2,666	3,068
Colombia	2,232	2,161	2,555
Iraq	495	1,488	2,415
Norway	1,404	1,446	1,991
Angola	1,294	1,216	1,928
Algeria	1,999	1,814	1,829
Dominican Republic	1,163	1,410	1,646
Ireland	1,112	1,375	1,566
Denmark	1,779	1,664	1,535
South Africa	1,345	1,513	1,531
Ecuador	1,266	1,228	1,474
Argentina	1,080	1,436	1,391
Turkey	821	979	1,371
Finland	999	1,203	1,370
Chile	981	1,181	1,292
New Zealand	1,046	1,161	1,209
Austria	929	1,074	1,135
Kuwait	521	464	973
Costa Rica	670	774	962
Peru	769	658	814
Portugal	664	693	800
Yugoslavia	797	842	799
Trinidad & Tobago	815	719	768

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights, pp. 46 and 47.

THE TOP SUPPLIERS OF U.S. MERCHANDISE IMPORTS IN 1989

(General Imports, Customs; Millions of Dollars)



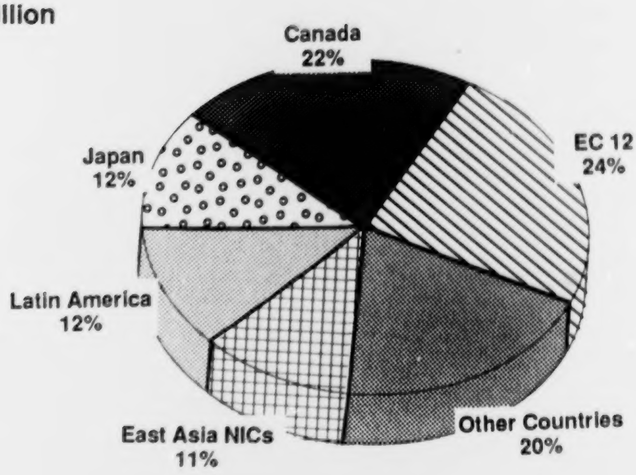
Total: $473,211,000,000

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
1. Japan	$93,553	19.8%
2. Canada	87,953	18.6
3. Mexico	27,162	5.8
4. Germany, W.	24,833	5.2
5. Taiwan	24,313	5.1
6. Korea, So.	19,737	4.2
7. United Kingdom	18,319	3.9
8. France	13,014	2.8
9. China	11,990	2.5
10. Italy	11,933	2.5
11. Hong Kong	$9,722	2.1%
12. Singapore	9,003	1.9
13. Brazil	8,410	1.8
14. Saudi Arabia	7,157	1.5
15. Venezuela	6,771	1.4
16. Nigeria	5,284	1.1
17. Sweden	4,892	1.0
18. Netherlands	4,810	1.0
19. Malaysia	4,744	1.0
20. Switzerland	4,714	1.0
All Others		15.8

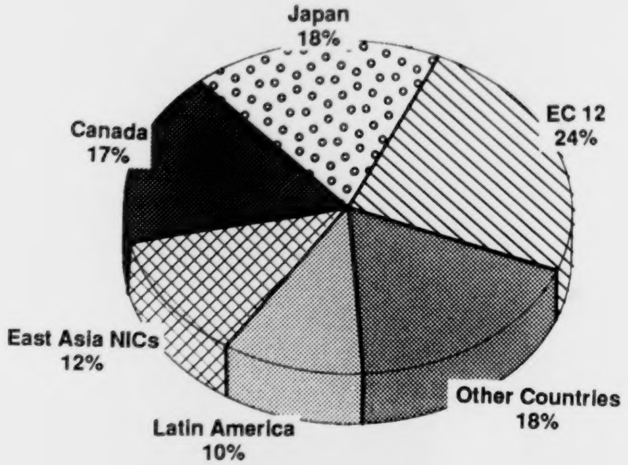
World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 36 & 47.

DIRECTION OF U.S MERCHANDISE TRADE WITH THE WORLD, 1989

Exports: $364 Billion



Imports: $473 Billion



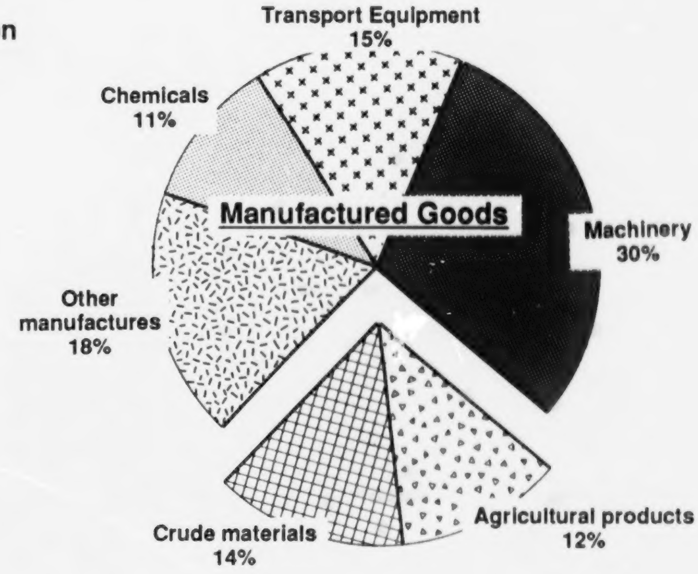
NICs = Newly Industrialized Countries

World Eagle charts based on those in U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Trade and Investment Analysis, 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights, P. 12.

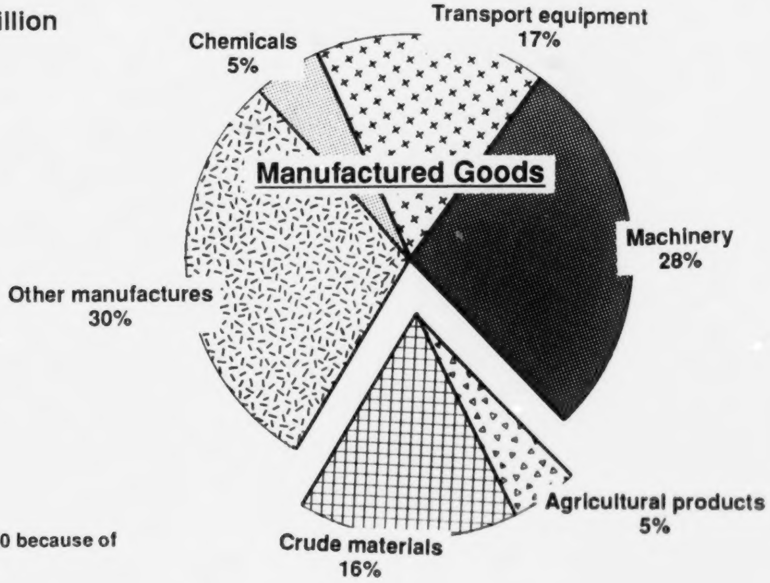
30C

COMPOSITION OF U.S. MERCHANDISE TRADE WITH THE WORLD, 1989

Exports: $364 Billion



Imports: $473 Billion



Does not sum to 100 because of internal rounding.

World Eagle charts based on those in U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Trade and Investment Analysis, 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights, P. 11.

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ASPECTS OF GATT

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) entered into force in 1948 as one in a series of post-war agreements to improve world political and economic stability. It sets rules for international trade and provides a forum for multilateral tariff and other trade negotiations. The United States is among the founding members and a chief author of the GATT. It now has 99 members, known as contracting parties, which account for almost 90% of world trade.

Since the inception of the GATT, international trade has increased in volume at least tenfold. This growth has occurred partly as a result of a consensus among GATT members that the world's economic welfare depends on freer trade, without the risk of escalating tariff wars. Seven rounds of multilateral negotiations under the GATT have succeeded in reducing average tariffs in the industrial countries from more than 40% in the early 1950s to less than 5% today.

GATT members (November 1990): Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Burkina Faso, Burma*, Burundi, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, Colombia, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Cuba, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Finland, France, Gabon, The Gambia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guyana, Haiti, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya, Republic of Korea, Kuwait, Lesotho, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

*Myanmar

Fundamentals of GATT

Most-favored-Nation Status. GATT members must extend to all other members the most favorable treatment granted to any trading partner. This non-discriminatory treatment ensures that any tariff reduction or other trade concession is automatically extended to all GATT parties, multiplying its liberalizing effects. The GATT allows some exceptions, primarily for customs unions such as the European Community and the US-Canada Free Trade Agreement.

National Treatment. GATT members must give imported goods treatment equal to that accorded domestic goods in the domestic markets. Any restrictions applied to imported products also must apply to like domestic products.

Protection Through Tariffs. The GATT generally prohibits quantitative restrictions or quotas. Contracting parties must, to the extent possible, provide any protection necessary to their industries solely by means of tariffs, which are transparent and subject to negotiation in the GATT.

Dispute Settlement. Parties may challenge trade actions of other parties that may be consistent with the GATT. GATT members decide whether to accept by consensus the resulting findings of a panel of trade experts.

Excerpted from U.S. Department of State Dispatch, November 19, 1990. Pp. 277-278.

COMPARISONS OF THE U.S. AND 33 OTHER COUNTRIES HOURLY COMPENSATION COSTS FOR PRODUCTION WORKERS: INDEX U.S. = 100, ALL MANUFACTURING

1975 AND 1979-89

COUNTRY OR AREA	1975	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
UNITED STATES	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CANADA	91	84	85	85	87	90	88	83	83	89	98	103
BRAZIL	14	16	14	15	15	10	9	9	11	10	11	12
MEXICO (1)	31	27	30	34	22	15	16	16	11	12	14	16
VENEZUELA	32	31	35	35								
AUSTRALIA	87	82	86	90	85	76	79	63	64	70	81	85
HONG KONG (1)	12	15	15	14	14	12	13	13	14	16	17	19
INDIA	3	4	4	4	3	3	3					
ISRAEL	35	37	39	39	38	40	37	31	39	47	55	54
JAPAN	48	61	57	57	49	51	51	50	70	81	92	88
KOREA	6	12	10	10	10	10	10	10	11	13	18	25
NEW ZEALAND	50	52	54	52	48	43	37	34	42	51	59	55
PAKISTAN	3	4	4	3								
SINGAPORE	13	14	15	17	17	18	20	19	17	17	19	22
SRI LANKA	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		
TAIWAN	6	9	10	11	11	11	11	12	13	17	20	25
AUSTRIA	68	85	87	69	64	62	56	56	78	98	101	95
BELGIUM	101	131	133	104	82	75	69	69	93	112	112	106
DENMARK	99	117	111	87	76	72	64	63	84	109	115	106
FINLAND (1)	72	83	84	74	68	62	61	62	81	100	113	116
FRANCE	71	85	91	74	67	64	58	58	78	93	94	89
GERMANY	100	125	125	97	88	85	75	74	101	126	131	123
GREECE	27	37	38	34	35	31	30	28	31	34	38	38
IRELAND	47	53	60	51	49	46	44	45	59	68	70	66
ITALY	73	79	81	68	62	63	58	56	75	91	93	92
LUXEMBOURG	100	123	122	91	74	67	62	59	80	97	100	
NETHERLANDS	103	126	123	91	84	78	70	69	95	117	117	109
NORWAY	107	115	119	102	93	87	82	82	103	129	136	131
PORTUGAL	25	19	21	19	16	13	12	12	16	19	19	19
SPAIN	41	60	61	52	46	38	37	37	49	59	64	64
SWEDEN	113	126	127	109	87	73	73	75	94	113	121	122
SWITZERLAND	96	117	113	94	90	86	77	75	104	128	130	117
TURKEY	11	12	7	5	4	4	3					
UNITED KINGDOM	52	62	76	66	59	53	48	48	57	67	76	73

(1) INDUSTRY NOTES:
MEXICO: AVERAGE OF SELECTED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.
HONG KONG: AVERAGE OF SELECTED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.
FINLAND: INCLUDING MINING & ELECTRICAL POWER PLANTS.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Productivity and Technology. September 1990. Unpublished Data. 115 pages. Hourly Compensation Costs for Production Workers, 40 Manufacturing Industries, 34 Countries, 1975 and 1979-89. P.1.

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COMPARISONS OF THE U.S AND 33 OTHER COUNTRIES HOURLY COMPENSATION COSTS FOR PRODUCTION WORKERS IN U.S. DOLLARS, ALL MANUFACTURING

1975 AND 1979-89

COUNTRY OR AREA	1975	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
UNITED STATES	6.36	9.02	9.84	10.84	11.64	12.10	12.51	12.96	13.21	13.39	13.85	14.31
CANADA	5.79	7.61	8.37	9.22	10.09	10.85	10.99	10.80	11.00	11.95	13.53	14.72
BRAZIL	.87	1.43	1.38	1.65	1.76	1.24	1.07	1.12	1.47	1.38	1.50	1.72
MEXICO (1)	2.00	2.41	2.96	3.71	2.54	1.85	2.06	2.09	1.50	1.57	1.99	2.32
VENEZUELA	2.03	2.82	3.44	3.78								
AUSTRALIA	5.54	7.42	8.47	9.74	9.92	9.25	9.84	8.14	8.43	9.40	11.28	12.10
HONG KONG (1)	.76	1.31	1.51	1.55	1.66	1.51	1.58	1.73	1.88	2.09	2.40	2.79
INDIA	.19	.37	.44	.42	.39	.41	.42					
ISRAEL	2.25	3.30	3.79	4.18	4.43	4.88	4.65	4.06	5.20	6.34	7.67	7.69
JAPAN	3.05	5.49	5.61	6.18	5.70	6.13	6.34	6.43	9.31	10.83	12.80	12.63
KOREA	.35	1.09	1.03	1.09	1.17	1.24	1.31	1.35	1.45	1.78	2.50	3.57
NEW ZEALAND	3.21	4.71	5.33	5.69	5.62	5.19	4.65	4.47	5.50	6.77	8.19	7.80
PAKISTAN	.21	.38	.35	.37								
SINGAPORE	.84	1.26	1.49	1.79	1.96	2.21	2.46	2.47	2.23	2.31	2.67	3.09
SRI LANKA	.28	.23	.22	.21	.24	.25	.25	.28	.29	.30		
TAIWAN	.40	.79	1.00	1.21	1.24	1.29	1.42	1.50	1.73	2.26	2.82	3.53
AUSTRIA	4.34	7.67	8.56	7.49	7.47	7.49	7.04	7.26	10.28	13.09	13.92	13.59
BELGIUM	6.41	11.82	13.11	11.31	9.49	9.08	8.63	8.92	12.31	15.04	15.54	15.18
DENMARK	6.28	10.58	10.95	9.41	8.88	8.68	8.03	8.13	11.08	14.56	15.86	15.16
FINLAND (1)	4.60	7.45	8.27	8.02	7.97	7.48	7.69	8.08	10.71	13.44	15.62	16.55
FRANCE	4.52	7.69	8.94	8.02	7.85	7.74	7.29	7.52	10.27	12.42	12.96	12.72
GERMANY	6.35	11.29	12.33	10.53	10.28	10.23	9.43	9.56	13.29	16.91	18.11	17.58
GREECE	1.69	3.37	3.73	3.66	4.12	3.76	3.74	3.66	4.07	4.61	5.22	5.48
IRELAND	3.01	4.81	5.88	5.52	5.65	5.60	5.50	5.80	7.81	9.08	9.74	9.42
ITALY	4.65	7.12	8.00	7.39	7.27	7.59	7.25	7.32	9.91	12.14	12.87	13.23
LUXEMBOURG	6.35	11.08	11.98	9.82	8.59	8.12	7.75	7.71	10.63	13.03	13.88	
NETHERLANDS	6.58	11.41	12.06	9.91	9.78	9.49	8.70	8.91	12.57	15.60	16.22	15.54
NORWAY	6.78	10.38	11.68	11.10	10.87	10.54	10.28	10.60	13.55	17.29	18.88	18.73
PORTUGAL	1.58	1.68	2.06	2.04	1.88	1.62	1.45	1.53	2.08	2.51	2.67	2.77
SPAIN	2.59	5.40	5.96	5.62	5.35	4.64	4.58	4.79	6.43	7.86	8.81	9.10
SWEDEN	7.18	11.33	12.51	11.80	10.07	8.89	9.17	9.66	12.43	15.12	16.82	17.52
SWITZERLAND	6.09	10.56	11.09	10.14	10.42	10.46	9.64	9.66	13.76	17.08	17.98	16.70
TURKEY	.70	1.11	.69	.58	.50	.50	.41					
UNITED KINGDOM	3.32	5.61	7.43	7.20	6.82	6.39	5.95	6.19	7.54	8.97	10.46	10.44

(1) INDUSTRY NOTES:
MEXICO: AVERAGE OF SELECTED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.
HONG KONG: AVERAGE OF SELECTED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.
FINLAND: INCLUDING MINING & ELECTRICAL POWER PLANTS.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Productivity and Technology. September 1990. Unpublished Data. 115 pages. Hourly Compensation Costs for Production Workers, 40 Manufacturing Industries, 34 Countries, 1975 and 1979-89. P.2.

U.S. MERCHANDISE TRADE FIGURES, 1980-1990

--- Calendar Years -- All Figures in Billions of Dollars ---

The combined annual export-import merchandise trade of the U.S. has grown from $35 billion in 1960 to $837 billion in 1989.

I. TOTAL U.S. Merchandise Trade

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Deficit
1980	$220.6263	$244.8706	$24.2443
1981	233.6770	261.3049	27.6279
1982	212.1931	243.9519	31.7588
1983	200.4858	258.0478	57.5620
1984	217.8652	325.7257	107.8605
1985	213.1330	345.2755	132.1425
1986	217.3042	369.9614	152.6572
1987	254.1219	406.2410	152.1191
1988	322.4264	440.9523	118.5259
1989	363.8115	473.2108	109.3993
1990	394.0449	495.0420	100.9971

II. Of the TOTALS Above in I, The Following Were For U.S. Agricultural Commodities:

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Surplus
1980	$42.256	$17.366	$23.890
1981	43.3369	16.7783	26.5586
1982	37.0107	15.4217	21.5890
1983	36.4558	16.5341	19.9217
1984	38.2309	19.7630	18.4679
1985	29.6187	20.0045	9.6142
1986	26.6186	21.2844	5.3342
1987	28.6362	20.0403	8.5949
1988	37.0152	21.2076	15.8076
1989	41.3194	22.0353	19.2841
1990	38.7157	22.3782	16.3375

III. Of The TOTALS Above in I, The Following Were For Total Petroleum and Selected Products:

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Deficit
1980	$2.8	$78.6368	$75.8368
1981	3.6958	76.7118	73.0160
1982	5.9473	76.6589	70.7116
1983	4.5574	53.2168*	48.6594
1984	4.469	56.9247+	52.4544
1985	4.7071	50.4752#	45.7681
1986	3.6395	35.1423**	31.5028
1987	3.9201	42.2854***	38.3653
1988	3.6792	38.8542##	35.1750
1989	5.0211	49.7042###	44.6831
1990	6.7123	61.3565++	54.6442

* $36.8091 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
+ $36.5288 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
# $33.034 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
** $22.7205 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
*** $29.3205 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
## $25.8441 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
### $35.5392 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
++ $43.8709 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration and Bureau of the Census.

DIPLOMATIC IMMUNITY
Comments by the U.S Department of State

Background

Diplomatic immunity is a principle of international law by which certain foreign government officials are not subject to the jurisdiction of local courts and other authorities. The concept of immunity began with ancient tribes. In order to exchange information, messengers were allowed to travel from tribe to tribe without fear of harm. They were protected even when they brought bad news. Today, immunity protects the channels of diplomatic communication by exempting diplomats from local jurisdiction so that they can perform their duties with freedom, independence, and security. Diplomatic immunity is not meant to benefit individuals personally; it is meant to ensure that foreign officials can do their jobs. Under the concept of reciprocity, diplomats assigned to any country in the world benefit equally from diplomatic immunity.

Legal Framework

The Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations of 1961 and the Vienna Convention on Consular Relations of 1963 codified most modern diplomatic and consular practices, including diplomatic immunity. More than 140 nations, including the United States, are parties to these treaties. The conventions provide immunity to persons according to their rank in a diplomatic mission or consular post and according to the need for immunity in performing their duties. For example, diplomatic agents and members of their immediate families are immune from all criminal prosecution and most civil law suits. Administrative and technical staff members of embassies have a lower level of immunity. Consular officers serving in consulates throughout the country have an even lower level of immunity. Members of an embassy's service staff and consular employees are immune only for acts performed as part of their official duties.

The United States considers the Vienna conventions particularly important because of the large number of American diplomatic and consular personnel stationed in countries where judicial systems are very different and less protective of individual rights than our own or where unfriendly governments might use their police authorities to harass American diplomats and their families. Failure by US authorities to uphold the Vienna conventions would complicate US diplomatic relations and could lead to harsher treatment in foreign courts of US personnel abroad.

Abuses of Diplomatic Immunity

Under the Vienna conventions, all persons entitled to immunity have the obligation and duty to respect the laws and regulations of the host country. Immunity is not a license to commit a crime, and violations of the law are not condoned. In the United States, any time a person with immunity is alleged to have committed a crime, the Department of State advises his or her government of the incident and, where prosecution would be the normal procedure, requests a waiver of the alleged offender's immunity so that the case may be heard in the appropriate US court. If immunity is not waived, the Department of State may, in serious cases, order the withdrawal of the offender from the United States. In the case of an offense committed by a member of a diplomat's family, the diplomat and his or her entire family may be expelled. Diplomatic visas of serious offenders are cancelled, and their names are entered into a worldwide lookout system to keep them from returning to the United States.

The Department of State's Office of Protocol works with the injured parties and the foreign government to secure restitution in those cases where criminal incidents have resulted in injuries to individuals. The Diplomatic Relations Act of 1978 and related regulations require that before a person with immunity can obtain license plates for a vehicle, he or she must have liability insurance. Anyone injured in an automobile accident by a person with immunity may bring direct action against the vehicle's insurer in US District Court. In addition, diplomats do not have a right to endanger public safety by driving a vehicle while under the influence of alcohol or by disregarding the rules of the road. Police stop them and, if they are intoxicated, prevent them from driving. Police issue citations for driving offenses and the Department of State revokes drivers' permits for any persons found to be unsafe drivers or who continually abuse driving regulations. Furthermore, some countries follow the practice of investigating, and, if appropriate, taking legal action against their own diplomats who are accused of breaking a host country's laws.

In those cases where immunity prevents civil suits, the Department of State works to settle the matter and mediates disputes in an effort to find a mutually satisfactory solution. The vast majority of persons entitled to some form of diplomatic immunity are law-abiding people. Only a few ever run afoul of the law. Unfortunately, those few who do exhibit egregious behavior draw the attention of the public and the media and damage the reputation of the entire group. ◆

Source: U.S. Department of State is Gist, a quick reference aid on U.S. foreign policy. October 4, 1990.

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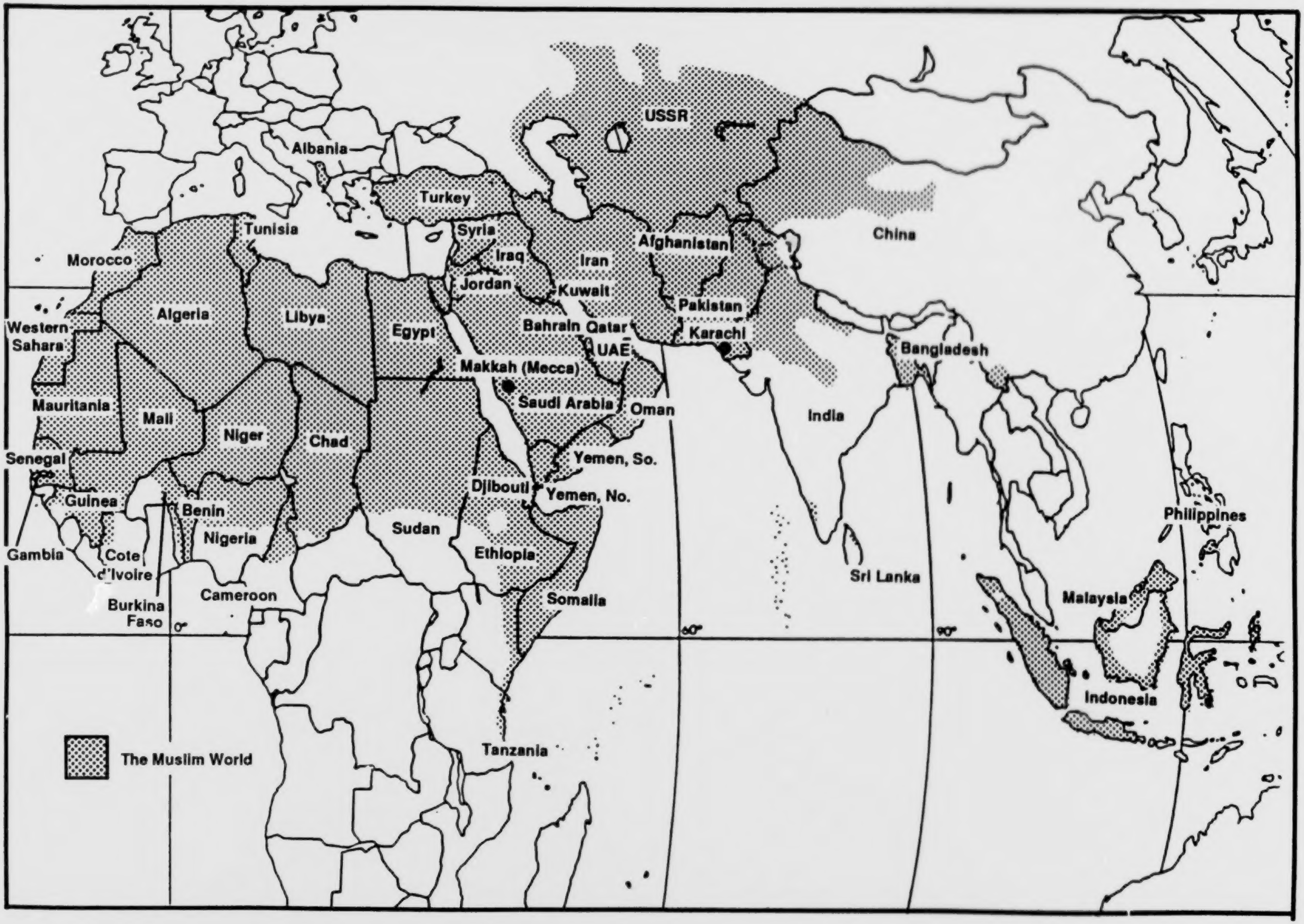
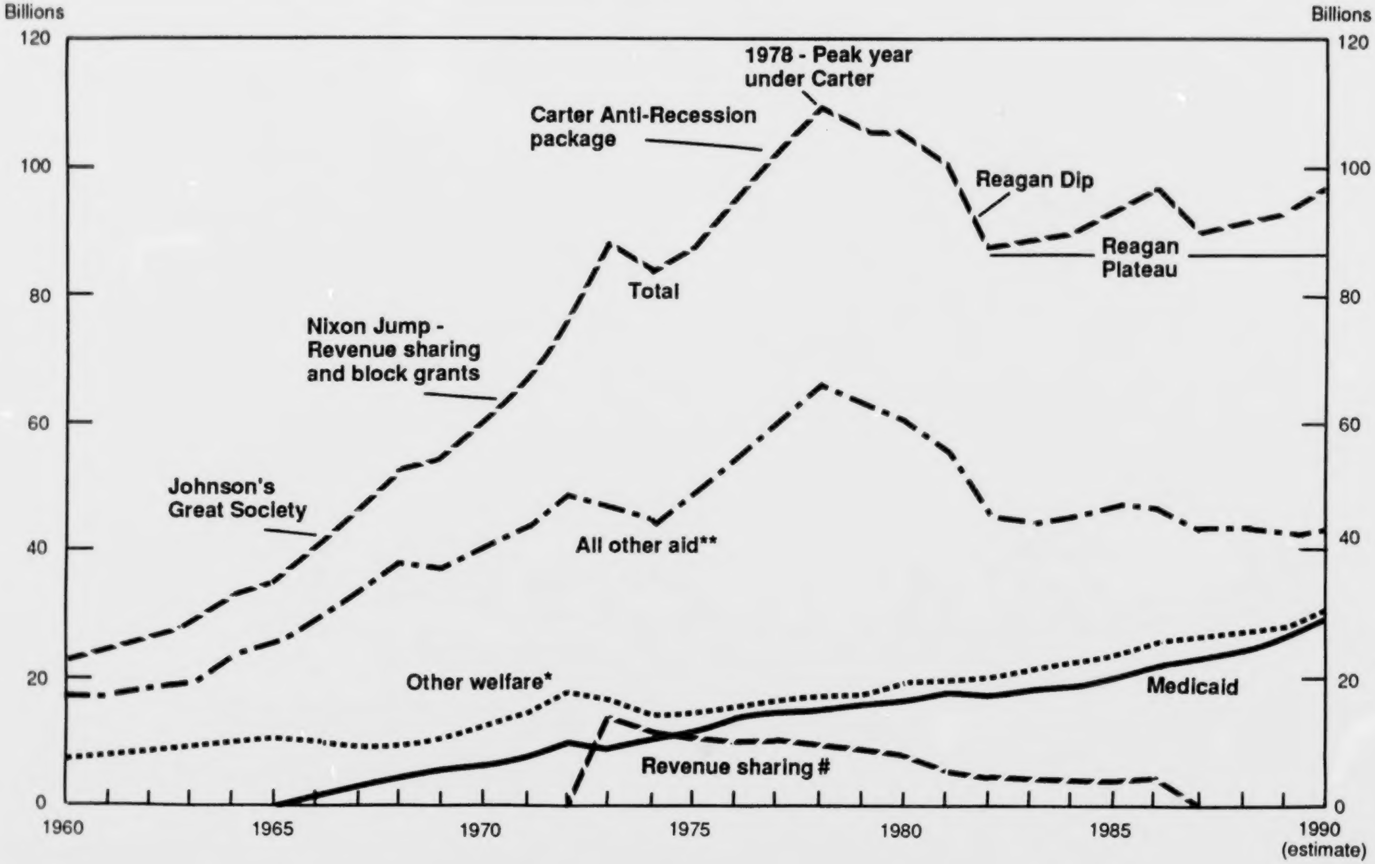
MOST OF THE MUSLIM WORLD IS NON-ARAB. INDEED, MOST OF THE MUSLIM WORLD LIVES EAST OF KARACHI


USSR
Albania
Turkey
Tunisia
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Afghanistan
China
Morocco
Jordan
Kuwait
Pakistan
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Bahrain
Qatar
Karachi
Western Sahara
UAE
Bangladesh
Makkah (Mecca)
Mauritania
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Mali
India
Niger
Chad
Senegal
Yemen, So.
Djibouti
Yemen, No.
Guinea
Benin
Philippines
Sudan
Nigeria
Gambia
Cote d'Ivoire
Ethiopia
Sri Lanka
Burkina Faso
Cameroon
Somalia
Malaysia
0°
60°
90°
Indonesia
Tanzania
▨ The Muslim World

FEDERAL AID TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS 1960-1990

(in 1982 dollars)



** Highways, environment, education, job training, public health, etc.
* Family assistance, housing subsidies, school lunches, etc.
# Began in 1972, ended in 1987

Source: Center for the Study of the States, The Nelson A. Rockefeller Institute of Government. Reprinted with permission.

PROFILES OF ISRAEL, THE GAZA STRIP, AND THE WEST BANK

100 km
Haifa
Lake Tiberias
Nazareth
Mediterranean Sea
Tel Aviv-Yafo
Ashdod
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Beersheba
Elat

Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

See regional map VI

Note: The Arab territories occupied by Israel since the 1967 war are not included in the data below. As stated in the 1978 Camp David Accords and reaffirmed by President Reagan's 1 September 1982 peace initiative, the final status of the West Bank and Gaza Strip, their relationship with their neighbors, and a peace treaty between Israel and Jordan are to be negotiated among the concerned parties. The Camp David Accords further specify that these negotiations will resolve the location of the respective boundaries. Pending the completion of this process, it is US policy that the final status of the West Bank and Gaza Strip has yet to be determined (see West Bank and Gaza Strip entries). On 25 April 1982 Israel relinquished control of the Sinai to Egypt. Statistics for the Israeli-occupied Golan Heights are included in the Syria entry.

Geography

Total area: 20,770 km^2; land area: 20,330 km^2

Comparative area: slightly larger than New Jersey

Land boundaries: 1,006 km total; Egypt 255 km, Jordan 238 km, Lebanon 79 km, Syria 76 km, West Bank 307, Gaza Strip 51 km

Coastline: 273 km

Maritime claims:

Continental shelf: to depth of exploitation

Territorial sea: 6 nm

Disputes: separated from Lebanon, Syria, and the West Bank by the 1949 Armistice Line; differences with Jordan over the location of the 1949 Armistice Line which separates the two countries; West Bank and Gaza Strip are Israeli occupied with status to be determined; Golan Heights is Israeli occupied; Israeli troops in southern Lebanon since June 1982; water-sharing issues with Jordan

Climate: temperate; hot and dry in desert areas

Terrain: Negev desert in the south; low coastal plain; central mountains; Jordan Rift Valley

Natural resources: copper, phosphates, bromide, potash, clay, sand, sulfur, asphalt, manganese, small amounts of natural gas and crude oil

Land use: 17% arable land; 5% permanent crops; 40% meadows and pastures; 6% forest and woodland; 32% other; includes 11% irrigated

Environment: sandstorms may occur during spring and summer; limited arable land and natural water resources pose serious constraints; deforestation;

Note: there are 173 Jewish settlements in the West Bank, 35 in the Israeli-occupied Golan Heights, 18 in the Gaza Strip, and 14 Israeli-built Jewish neighborhoods in East Jerusalem

People

Population: 4,409,218 (July 1990), growth rate 1.5% (1989); includes 70,000 Jewish settlers in the West Bank, 10,500 in the Israeli-occupied Golan Heights, 2,500 in the Gaza Strip, and 110,000 in East Jerusalem (1989 est.)

Birth rate: 22 births/1,000 population (1990)

Death rate: 6 deaths/1,000 population (1990)

Net migration rate: 0 migrants/1,000 population (1990)

Infant mortality rate: 9 deaths/1,000 live births (July 1990)

Life expectancy at birth: 76 years male, 79 years female (July 1990)

Total fertility rate: 2.9 children born/woman (1990)

Nationality: noun—Israeli(s); adjective—Israeli

Ethnic divisions: 83% Jewish, 17% non-Jewish (mostly Arab)

Religion: 83% Judaism, 13.1% Islam (mostly Sunni Muslim), 2.3% Christian, 1.6% Druze

Language: Hebrew (official); Arabic used officially for Arab minority; English most commonly used foreign language

Literacy: 88% Jews, 70% Arabs

Labor force: 1,400,000 (1984 est.); 29.5% public services; 22.8% industry, mining, and manufacturing; 12.8% commerce; 9.5% finance and business; 6.8% transport, storage, and communications; 6.5% construction and public works; 5.5% agriculture, forestry, and fishing; 5.8% personal and other services; 1.0% electricity and water (1983)

Organized labor: 90% of labor force

Government

Long-form name: State of Israel

Type: republic

Capital: Israel proclaimed Jerusalem its capital in 1950, but the US, like nearly all other countries, maintains its Embassy in Tel Aviv

Administrative divisions: 6 districts (mehozot, singular—mehoz); Central, Haifa, Jerusalem, Northern, Southern, Tel Aviv

Independence: 14 May 1948 (from League of Nations mandate under British administration)

Constitution: no formal constitution; some of the functions of a constitution are filled by the Declaration of Establishment (1948), the basic laws of the Parliament (Knesset), and the Israeli citizenship law

Legal system: mixture of English common law, British Mandate regulations, and, in personal matters, Jewish, Christian, and Muslim legal systems; in December 1985 Israel informed the UN Secretariat that it would no longer accept compulsory ICJ jurisdiction

National holiday: Independence Day, 10 May 1989; Israel declared independence on 14 May 1948, but the Jewish calendar is lunar and the holiday may occur in April or May

Executive branch: president, prime minister, vice prime minister, Cabinet

Legislative branch: unicameral Knesset

Judicial branch: Supreme Court

Leaders: *Chief of State*—President Gen. Chaim HERZOG (since 5 May 1983); *Head of Government*—Prime Minister Yitzhak SHAMIR (since 20 October 1986); Vice Prime Minister Shimon PERES (Prime Minister from 13 September 1984 to 20 October 1986, when he rotated to Vice Prime Minister)

Political parties and leaders: Israel currently has a national unity government comprising five parties that hold 95 of the Knesset's 120 seats; *Members of the unity government*—Likud bloc, Prime Minister Yitzhak Shamir; Labor Party, Vice Prime Minister and Finance Minister Shimon Peres; Sephardic Torah Guardians (SHAS), Minister of Immigrant Absorption Yitzhak Peretz; National Religious Party, Minister of Religious Affairs Zevulun Hammer; Agudat Yisrael, Deputy Minister of Labor and Social Welfare Moshe Zeev Feldman;

Opposition parties—Tehiya Party, Yuval Ne'eman; Tzomet Party, Rafael Eytan; Moledet Party, Rehavam Ze'evi; Degel HaTorah, Avraham Ravitz; Citizens' Rights Movement, Shulamit Aloni; United Workers' Party (MAPAM), Yair Tzaban; Center Movement-Shinui,

continued →

ISRAEL continued

Amnon Rubenstein; New Communist Party of Israel (RAKAH), Meir Wilner; Progressive List for Peace, Muhammad Mi'ari; Arab Democratic Party, 'Abd Al Wahab Darawshah
Suffrage: universal at age 18
Elections: *President*—last held 23 February 1988 (next to be held February 1994); results—Gen. Chaim Herzog reelected by Knesset;
Parliament—last held 1 November 1988 (next to be held by November 1992); seats—(120 total) Likud bloc 40, Labor Party 39, SHAS 6, National Religious Party 5, Agudat Yisrael 5, Citizens' Rights Movement 5, RAKAH 4, Tehiya Party 3, MAPAM 3, Tzomet Party 2, Moledet Party 2, Degel HaTorah 2, Center Movement-Shinui 2, Progressive List for Peace 1, Arab Democratic Party 1
Communists: Hadash (predominantly Arab but with Jews in its leadership) has some 1,500 members
Other political or pressure groups: Gush Emunim, Jewish nationalists advocating Jewish settlement on the West Bank and Gaza Strip; Peace Now, critical of government's West Bank/Gaza Strip and Lebanon policies
Member of: CCC, FAO, GATT, IAEA, IBRD, ICAC, ICAO, IDA, IDB—Inter-American Development Bank, IFAD, IFC, ILO, IMF, IMO, IOOC, INTELSAT, INTERPOL, IPU, ITU, IWC—International Wheat Council, OAS (observer), UN, UNESCO, UPU, WHO, WIPO, WMO, WSG, WTO
Diplomatic representation: Ambassador Moshe ARAD; Chancery at 3514 International Drive NW, Washington DC 20008; telephone (202) 364-5500; there are Israeli Consulates General in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Houston, Los Angeles, Miami, New York, Philadelphia, and San Francisco; *US*—Ambassador William A. BROWN; Embassy at 71 Hayarkon Street, Tel Aviv (mailing address is APO New York 09672); telephone [972] (3) 654338; there is a US Consulate General in Jerusalem
Flag: white with a blue hexagram (six-pointed linear star) known as the Magen David (Shield of David) centered between two equal horizontal blue bands near the top and bottom edges of the flag

Economy

Overview: Israel has a market economy with substantial government participation. It depends on imports for crude oil, food, grains, raw materials, and military equipment. Despite limited natural resources, Israel has developed its agriculture and industry sectors on an intensive scale over the past 20 years. Industry accounts for about 23% of the labor force, agriculture for 6%, and services for most of the balance. Diamonds, high-technology machinery, and agricultural products (fruits and vegetables) are the biggest export earners. The balance of payments has traditionally been negative, but is offset by large transfer payments and foreign loans. Nearly two-thirds of Israel's $16 billion external debt is owed to the US, which is its major source for economic and military aid. To earn needed foreign exchange, Israel must continue to exploit high-technology niches in the international market, such as medical scanning equipment. In 1987 the economy showed a 5.2% growth in real GNP, the best gain in nearly a decade; in 1988-89 the gain was only 1% annually, largely because of the economic impact of the Palestinian uprising (*intifadah*). Inflation dropped from an annual rate of over 400% in 1984 to about 16% in 1987-88 without any major increase in unemployment.
GNP: $38 billion, per capita $8,700; real growth rate 1% (1989)
Inflation rate (consumer prices): 20% (1989)
Unemployment rate: 9% (December 1989)
Budget: revenues $24.2 billion; expenditures $26.3 billion, including capital expenditures of $7 billion (FY89 est.)
Exports: $10.4 billion (f.o.b., 1989 est.); *commodities*—polished diamonds, citrus and other fruits, textiles and clothing, processed foods, fertilizer and chemical products, military hardware, electronics; *partners*—US, UK, FRG, France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy
Imports: $12.4 billion (c.i.f., 1989 est.); *commodities*—military equipment, rough diamonds, oil, chemicals, machinery, iron and steel, cereals, textiles, vehicles, ships, aircraft; *partners*—US, FRG, UK, Switzerland, Italy, Belgium, Luxembourg
External debt: $16.4 billion (March 1989)
Industrial production: growth rate −1.5% (1989)
Electricity: 4,392,000 kW capacity; 17,500 million kWh produced, 4,000 kWh per capita (1989)
Industries: food processing, diamond cutting and polishing, textiles, clothing, chemicals, metal products, military equipment, transport equipment, electrical equipment, miscellaneous machinery, potash mining, high-technology electronics, tourism
Agriculture: accounts for 5% of GNP; largely self-sufficient in food production, except for bread grains; principal products—citrus and other fruits, vegetables, cotton; livestock products—beef, dairy, and poultry
Aid: US commitments, including Ex-Im (FY70-88), $15.8 billion; Western (non-US) countries, ODA and OOF bilateral commitments (1970-87), $2.2 billion
Currency: new Israeli shekel (plural—shekels); 1 new Israeli shekel (NIS) = 100 new agorot
Exchange rates: new Israeli shekels (NIS) per US$1—1.9450 (January 1990), 1.9164 (1989), 1.5989 (1988), 1.5946 (1987), 1.4878 (1986), 1.1788 (1985)
Fiscal year: 1 April-31 March

Communications

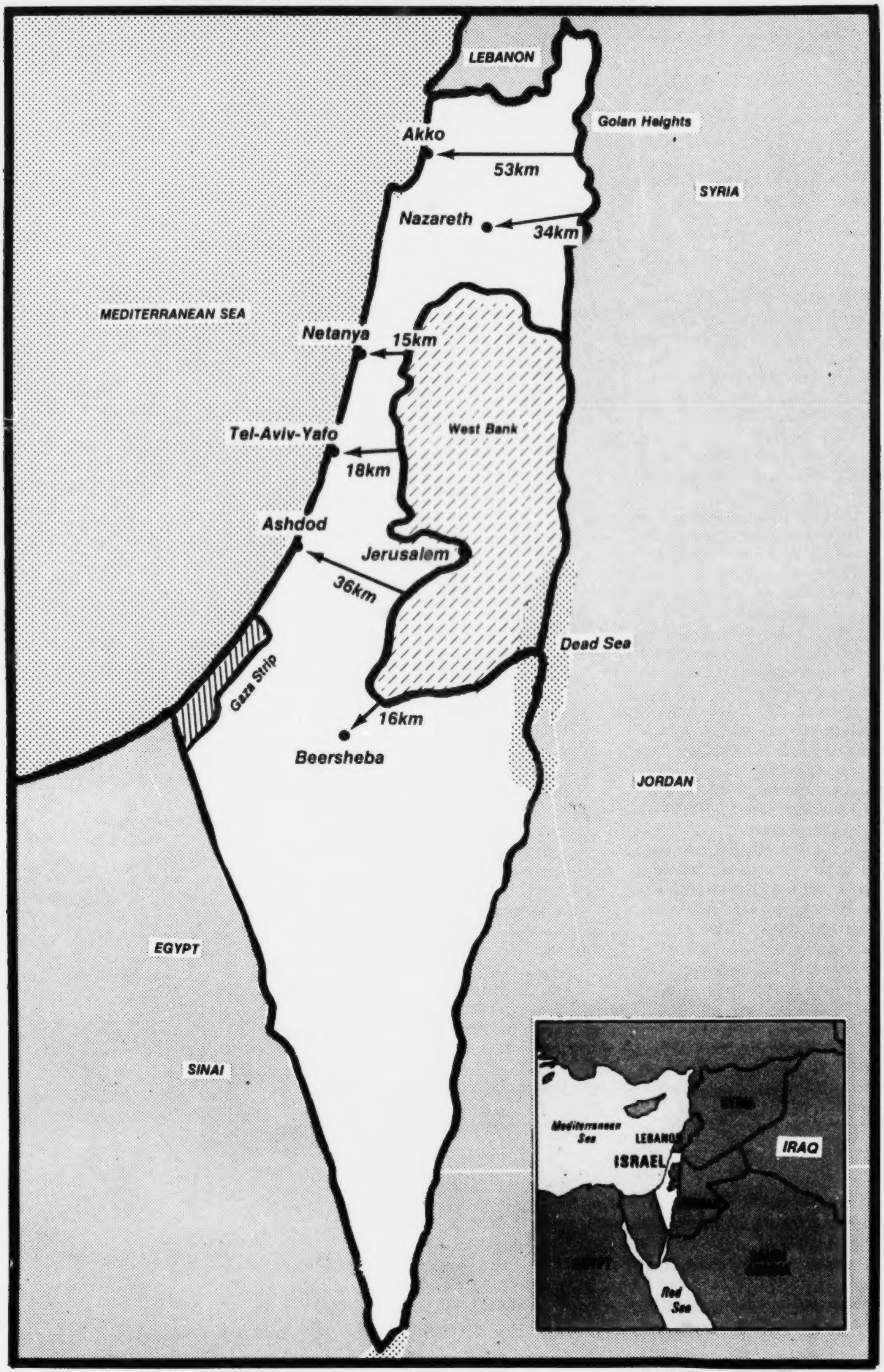
Railroads: 594 km 1.435-meter gauge, single track; diesel operated
Highways: 4,500 km; majority is bituminous surfaced
Pipelines: crude oil, 708 km; refined products, 290 km; natural gas, 89 km
Ports: Ashdod, Haifa, Elat
Merchant marine: 31 ships (1,000 GRT or over) totaling 483,424 GRT/560,085 DWT; includes 9 cargo, 20 container, 2 roll-on/roll-off cargo
Civil air: 27 major transport aircraft
Airports: 55 total, 52 usable; 26 with permanent-surface runways; none with runways over 3,659 m; 6 with runways 2,440-3,659 m; 11 with runways 1,220-2,439 m
Telecommunications: most highly developed in the Middle East though not the largest; good system of coaxial cable and radio relay; 1,800,000 telephones; stations—11 AM, 24 FM, 54 TV; 2 submarine cables; satellite earth stations—2 Atlantic Ocean INTELSAT and 1 Indian Ocean INTELSAT

Defense Forces

Branches: Israel Defense Forces; historically there have been no separate Israeli military services; ground, air, and naval components are branches of Israel Defense Forces
Military manpower: eligible 15-49, 2,159,462; of the 1,089,346 males 15-49, 898,272 are fit for military service; of the 1,070,116 females 15-49, 878,954 are fit for military service; 43,644 males and 41,516 females reach military age (18) annually; both sexes are liable for military service
Defense expenditures: 8.5% of GNP, or $3.2 billion (1989 est.); note—does not include an estimated $1.8 billion in US military aid

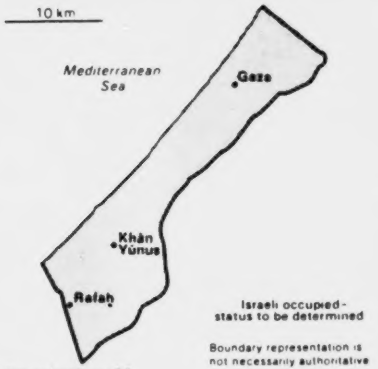
Source: The U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990. Pp. 153-154.

THE DISTANCES ARE SHORT


LEBANON
Golan Heights
Akko
53km
SYRIA
Nazareth
34km
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Netanya
15km
West Bank
Tel-Aviv-Yafo
18km
Ashdod
Jerusalem
36km
Dead Sea
Gaza Strip
16km
Beersheba
JORDAN
EGYPT
SINAI
Mediterranean Sea
LEBANON
ISRAEL
IRAQ
Red Sea

World Eagle illustration

THE GAZA STRIP


10 km
Mediterranean Sea
Gaza
Khān Yūnus
Rafah
Israeli occupied - status to be determined
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

See regional map VI

Note: The war between Israel and the Arab states in June 1967 ended with Israel in control of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, the Sinai, and the Golan Heights. As stated in the 1978 Camp David Accords and reaffirmed by President Reagan's 1 September 1982 peace initiative, the final status of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, their relationship with their neighbors, and a peace treaty between Israel and Jordan are to be negotiated among the concerned parties. Camp David further specifies that these negotiations will resolve the respective boundaries. Pending the completion of this process, it is US policy that the final status of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip has yet to be determined. In the view of the US, the term West Bank describes all of the area west of the Jordan under Jordanian administration before the 1967 Arab-Israeli war. With respect to negotiations envisaged in the framework agreement, however, it is US policy that a distinction must be made between Jerusalem and the rest of the West Bank because of the city's special status and circumstances. Therefore, a negotiated solution for the final status of Jerusalem could be different in character from that of the rest of the West Bank.

Geography

Total area: 380km^2; land area: 380 km^2
Comparative area: slightly more than twice the size of Washington, DC
Land boundaries: 62 km total; Egypt 11 km, Israel 51 km
Coastline: 40 km
Maritime claims: Israeli occupied with status to be determined
Disputes: Israeli occupied with status to be determined
Climate: temperate, mild winters, dry and warm to hot summers
Terrain: flat to rolling, sand and dune covered coastal plain
Natural resources: negligible
Land use: 13% arable land, 32% permanent crops, 0% meadows and pastures, 0% forest and woodland, 55% other
Environment: desertification
Note: there are 18 Jewish settlements in the Gaza Strip

People

Population: 615,575 (July 1990), growth rate 3.2% (1990); in addition, there are 2,500 Jewish settlers in the Gaza Strip
Birth rate: 47 births/1,000 population (1990)
Death rate: 7 deaths/1,000 population (1990)
Net migration rate: −7 migrants/1,000 population (1990)
Infant mortality rate: 55 deaths/1,000 live births (1990)
Life expectancy at birth: 63 years male, 66 years female (1990)
Total fertility rate: 7.0 children born/woman (1990)
Nationality: NA
Ethnic divisions: 99.8% Palestinian Arab and other, 0.2% Jewish
Religion: 99% Muslim (predominantly Sunni), 0.7% Christian, 0.3% Jewish
Language: Arabic, Israeli settlers speak Hebrew, English widely understood
Literacy: NA%
Labor force: (excluding Israeli Jewish settlers) 32.0% small industry, commerce and business, 24.4% construction, 25.5% service and other, and 18.1% agriculture (1984)
Organized labor: NA

Government

Long-form name: none
Note: The Gaza Strip is currently governed by Israeli military authorities and Israeli civil administration. It is US policy that the final status of the Gaza Strip will be determined by negotiations among the concerned parties. These negotiations will determine how this area is to be governed.

Economy

Overview: Nearly half of the labor force of the Gaza Strip is employed across the border by Israeli industrial, construction, and agricultural enterprises, with worker transfer funds accounting for 40% of GNP in 1989. The once dominant agricultural sector now contributes only 13% to GNP, about the same as that of the construction sector, and industry accounts for 7%. Gaza depends upon Israel for 90% of its imports and as a market for 80% of its exports. Unrest in the territory in 1988-89 (*intifadah*) has raised unemployment and substantially lowered the incomes of the population.
GNP: $380 million, per capita $650; real growth rate NA% (1988)
Inflation rate (consumer prices): NA%
Unemployment rate: NA%
Budget: revenues $36.6 million; expenditures $32.0 million, including capital expenditures of NA (1986)
Exports: $88 million; *commodities*—citrus; *partners*—Israel, Egypt (1989 est.)
Imports: $260 million; *commodities*—food, consumer goods, construction materials; *partners*—Israel, Egypt (1989 est.)
External debt: $NA
Industrial production: growth rate NA%
Electricity: power supplied by Israel
Industries: generally small family businesses that produce cement, textiles, soap, olive-wood carvings, and mother-of-pearl souvenirs; the Israelis have established some small-scale modern industries in an industrial center
Agriculture: olives, citrus and other fruits, vegetables, beef, dairy products
Aid: none
Currency: new Israeli shekel (plural—shekels); 1 new Israeli shekel (NIS) = 100 new agorot
Exchange rates: new Israeli shekels (NIS) per US$1—1.9450 (January 1990), 1.9164 (1989), 1.5989 (1988), 1.5946 (1987), 1.4878 (1986), 1.1788 (1985)
Fiscal year: 1 April-March 31

Communications

Railroads: one line, abandoned and in disrepair, but trackage remains
Highways: small, poorly developed indigenous road network
Ports: facilities for small boats to service Gaza
Airports: 1 with permanent-surface runway less than 1,220 m
Telecommunications: stations—no AM, no FM, no TV

Defense Forces

Branches: NA
Military manpower: NA
Defense expenditures: NA

Source: The U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990. Pp. 110-111.

THE WEST BANK

50 km
Nābulus
Israeli occupied-status to be determined
Jerusalem
Bethlehem
Dead Sea
Hebron

Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

See regional map VI

Note: The war between Israel and the Arab states in June 1967 ended with Israel in control of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, the Sinai, and the Golan Heights. As stated in the 1978 Camp David Accords and reaffirmed by President Reagan's 1 September 1982 peace initiative, the final status of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, their relationship with their neighbors, and a peace treaty between Israel and Jordan are to be negotiated among the concerned parties. Camp David further specifies that these negotiations will resolve the respective boundaries. Pending the completion of this process, it is US policy that the final status of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip has yet to be determined. In the view of the US, the term West Bank describes all of the area west of the Jordan River under Jordanian administration before the 1967 Arab-Israeli war. However, with respect to negotiations envisaged in the framework agreement, it is US policy that a distinction must be made between Jerusalem and the rest of the West Bank because of the city's special status and circumstances. Therefore, a negotiated solution for the final status of Jerusalem could be different in character from that of the rest of the West Bank.

Geography

Total area: 5,860 km^2; land area: 5,640 km^2; includes West Bank, East Jerusalem, Latrun Salient, Jerusalem No Man's Land, and the northwest quarter of the Dead Sea, but excludes Mt. Scopus
Comparative area: slightly larger than Delaware
Land boundaries: 404 km total; Israel 307 km, Jordan 97 km;
Coastline: none—landlocked
Maritime claims: none—landlocked
Disputes: Israeli occupied with status to be determined
Climate: temperate, temperature and precipitation vary with altitude, warm to hot summers, cool to mild winters
Terrain: mostly rugged dissected upland, some vegetation in west, but barren in east
Natural resources: negligible
Land use: 27% arable land, 0% permanent crops, 32% meadows and pastures, 1% forest and woodland, 40% other
Environment: highlands are main recharge area for Israel's coastal aquifers
Note: landlocked; there are 173 Jewish settlements in the West Bank and 14 Israeli-built Jewish neighborhoods in East Jerusalem

People

Population: 1,058,122 (July 1990), growth rate 2.6% (1990); in addition, there are 70,000 Jewish settlers in the West Bank and 110,000 in East Jerusalem (1989 est.)
Birth rate: 37 births/1,000 population (1990)
Death rate: 6 deaths/1,000 population (1990)
Net migration rate: −5 migrants/1,000 population (1990)
Infant mortality rate: 48 deaths/1,000 live births (1990)
Life expectancy at birth: 65 years male, 68 years female (1990)
Total fertility rate: 5.0 children born/woman (1990)
Nationality: NA
Ethnic divisions: 88% Palestinian Arab and other, 12% Jewish
Religion: 80% Muslim (predominantly Sunni), 12% Jewish, 8% Christian and other
Language: Arabic, Israeli settlers speak Hebrew, English widely understood
Literacy: NA%
Labor force: NA; excluding Israeli Jewish settlers—29.8% small industry, commerce, and business, 24.2% construction, 22.4% agriculture, 23.6% service and other (1984)
Organized labor: NA

Government

Long-form name: none
Note: The West Bank is currently governed by Israeli military authorities and Israeli civil administration. It is US policy that the final status of the West Bank will be determined by negotiations among the concerned parties. These negotiations will determine how the area is to be governed.

Economy

Overview: Economic progress in the West Bank has been hampered by Israeli military occupation and the effects of the Palestinian uprising. Industries using advanced technology or requiring sizable financial resources have been discouraged by a lack of financial resources and Israeli policy. Capital investment has largely gone into residential housing, not into productive assets that could compete with Israeli industry. A major share of GNP is derived from remittances of workers employed in Israel and neighboring Gulf states. Israeli reprisals against Palestinian unrest in the West Bank since 1987 have pushed unemployment up and lowered living standards.
GNP: $1.0 billion, per capita $1,000; real growth rate −15% (1988 est.)
Inflation rate (consumer prices): NA%
Unemployment rate: NA%
Budget: revenues $47.4 million; expenditures $45.7 million, including capital expenditures of NA (FY86)
Exports: $150 million (f.o.b., 1988 est.); *commodities*—NA; *partners*—Jordan, Israel
Imports: $410 million (c.i.f., 1988 est.); *commodities*—NA; *partners*—Jordan, Israel
External debt: $NA
Industrial production: growth rate NA%
Electricity: power supplied by Israel
Industries: generally small family businesses that produce cement, textiles, soap, olive-wood carvings, and mother-of-pearl souvenirs; the Israelis have established some small-scale modern industries in the settlements and industrial centers
Agriculture: olives, citrus and other fruits, vegetables, beef, and dairy products
Aid: none
Currency: new Israeli shekel (plural—shekels) and Jordanian dinar (plural—dinars); 1 new Israeli shekel (NIS) = 100 new agorot and 1 Jordanian dinar (JD) = 1,000 fils
Exchange rates: new Israeli shekels (NIS) per US$1—1.9450 (January 1990), 1.9164 (1989), 1.5992 (1988), 1.5946 (1987), 1.4878 (1986), 1.1788 (1985); Jordanian dinars (JD) per US$1—0.6557 (January 1990), 0.5704 (1989), 0.3715 (1988), 0.3387 (1987), 0.3499 (1986), 0.3940 (1985)
Fiscal year: 1 April-31 March

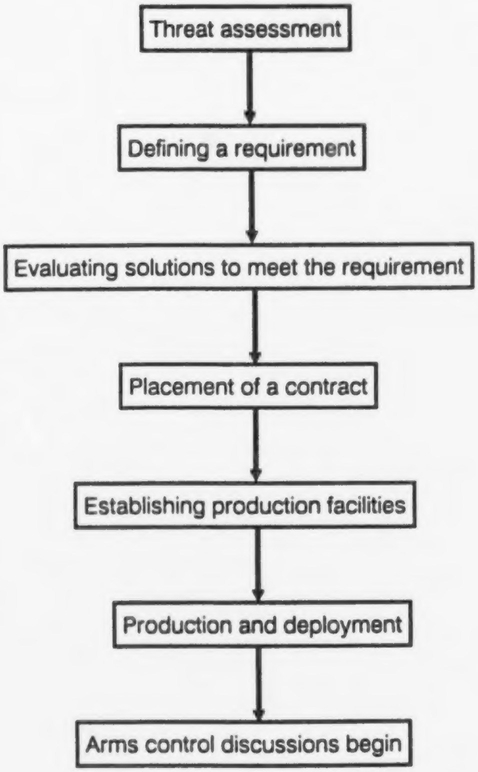
Communications

Highways: small indigenous road network, Israelis developing east-west axial highways
Airports: 2 total, 2 usable; 2 with permanent-surface runways; none with runways over 2,439 m; 1 with runways 1,220-2,439 m
Telecommunications: open-wire telephone system currently being upgraded; stations—no AM, no FM, no TV

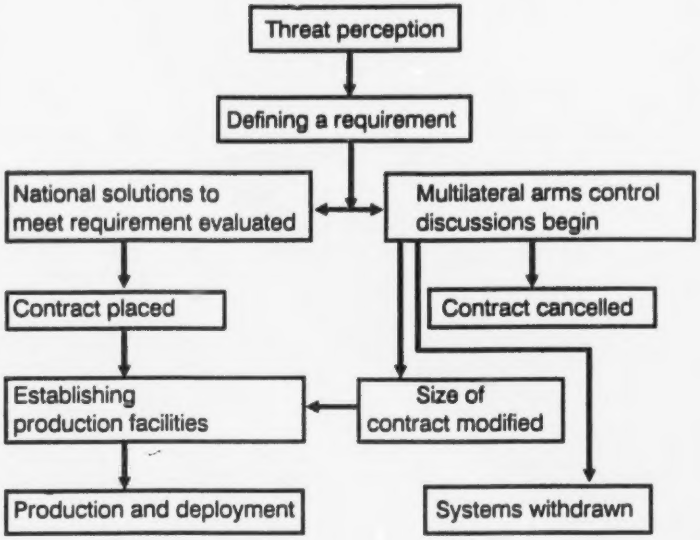
Source: The U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1990. Pp. 336-337.

FROM A UNITED NATIONS REPORT: AN ALTERNATIVE TO CURRENT WEAPONS ACQUISITION AND ARMS CONTROL

Weapons Acquisition and Arms Control: The current situation


Threat assessment
Defining a requirement
Evaluating solutions to meet the requirement
Placement of a contract
Establishing production facilities
Production and deployment
Arms control discussions begin

Weapons Acquisition and Arms Control: A future model


Threat perception
Defining a requirement
National solutions to meet requirement evaluated
Multilateral arms control discussions begin
Contract placed
Contract cancelled
Establishing production facilities
Size of contract modified
Production and deployment
Systems withdrawn

"...I note that there is general acceptance among the participants of the need to foster international co-operation on the diffusion of advanced technology for practical, problem-solving purposes. As one of our participants observed: "Some technologies are too valuable not to share."

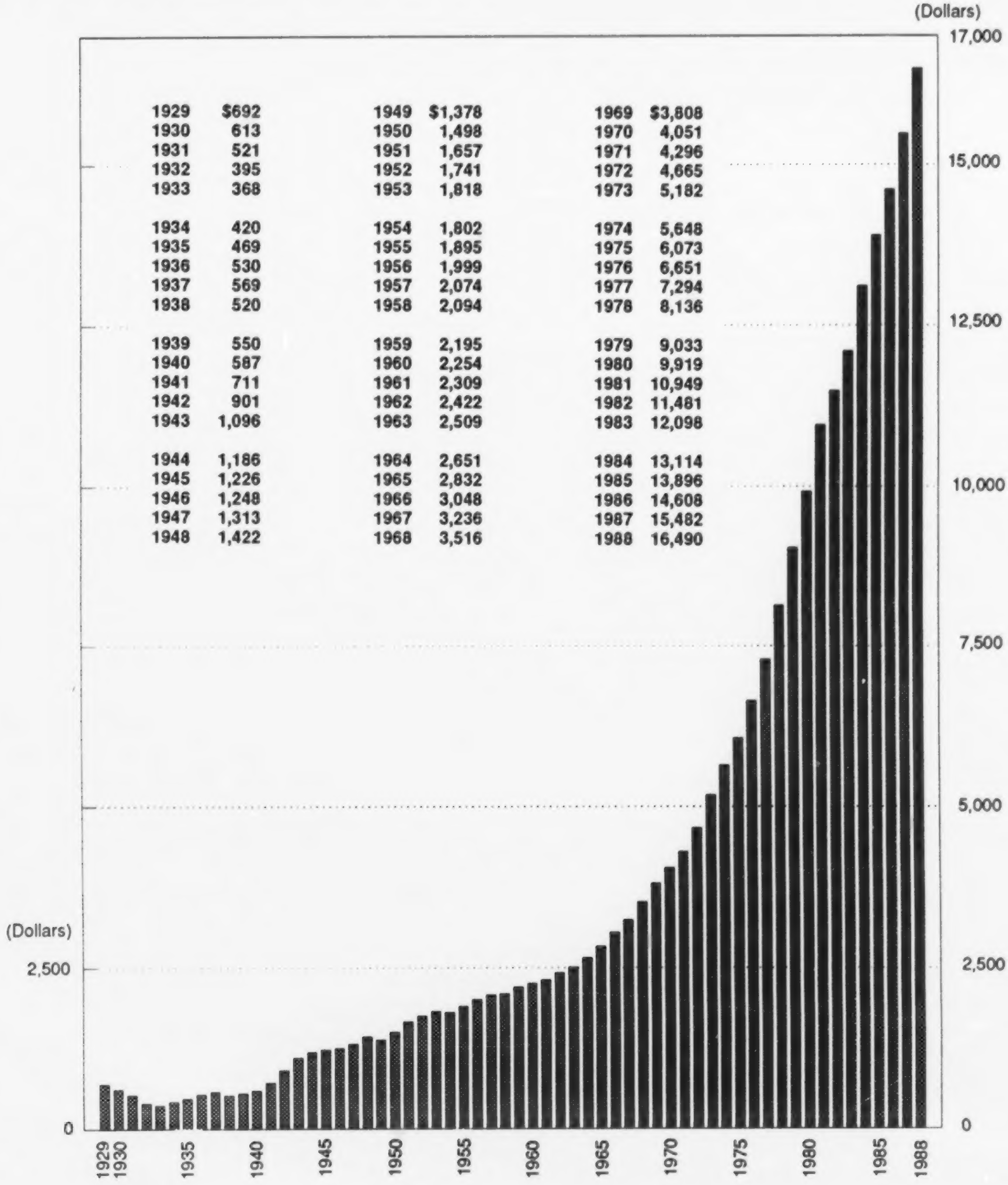
In closing, I would like to say that this Conference has been successful beyond my expectations. The spirit of international co-operation exemplified at the conference is unmistakable. In a small, perhaps modest, way, we have started a significant process wherein our scientific and policy communities can work together, not separately but together, in dealing with the complex implications of technological change from a truly global perspective. The greatest danger in our present situation is complacency. As the East-West confrontation recedes before our eyes, we have an unparalleled opportunity to act with a singularity of purpose. We should not miss it. Yet, at the same time, there has to be a much greater awareness within our various countries and within our various disciplines that the task of securing peace cannot be taken for granted and that we should earnestly explore all innovative means to ensure international stability when so many problems remain unattended and new ones keep emerging.

Of course, increased awareness and public education are not equivalent to concrete action, but, certainly, they are the necessary preconditions for making intelligent choices as we together step across the threshold into the twenty-first century.

Yasushi Akashi, UN Under-Secretary-General for Disarmament Affairs in his General Summary of the UN Report on a Conference held in Sendai, Japan, April 16-19, 1990.

Source: United Nations Department of Disarmament Affairs, Disarmament Topical Papers 2: Science and Technology and Their Implications for Peace and Security. United Nations Publication. Sales No. E. 90. 1X.8 Copyright 1990.

U.S. PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME, 1929-1988



1929	$692	1949	$1,378	1969	$3,808
1930	613	1950	1,498	1970	4,051
1931	521	1951	1,657	1971	4,296
1932	395	1952	1,741	1972	4,665
1933	368	1953	1,818	1973	5,182
1934	420	1954	1,802	1974	5,648
1935	469	1955	1,895	1975	6,073
1936	530	1956	1,999	1976	6,651
1937	569	1957	2,074	1977	7,294
1938	520	1958	2,094	1978	8,136
1939	550	1959	2,195	1979	9,033
1940	587	1960	2,254	1980	9,919
1941	711	1961	2,309	1981	10,949
1942	901	1962	2,422	1982	11,481
1943	1,096	1963	2,509	1983	12,098
1944	1,186	1964	2,651	1984	13,114
1945	1,226	1965	2,832	1985	13,896
1946	1,248	1966	3,048	1986	14,608
1947	1,313	1967	3,236	1987	15,482
1948	1,422	1968	3,516	1988	16,490

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. State Personal Income: 1929-87. 1989. Pp. 8-11. 1988 figure from Local Area Personal Income, 1983-88. Vol. 1 Summary. July 1990. P. 19.

A GENERAL ACCOUNTING OFFICE REPORT ASSERTS THAT VOTER TURNOUT COULD BE INCREASED BY SOME PROCEDURAL CHANGES AND INFORMATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The material on the next four pages has been excerpted (pages 2, 3, 17-19) from a November 1990 80-page GAO report (GAO/PEMD-91-1): "VOTING: Some Procedural Changes and Informational Activities Could Increase Turnout"

Compared to an average turnout of 80 percent in other democracies, voter turnout in the United States is low and has been declining continuously since 1960. In the 1988 presidential election, only 50 percent of those old enough to vote participated, down from 63 percent in 1960. Turnout is even lower in congressional elections—only 36 percent voted in 1986, for example.

In view of this situation, the Subcommittee on Elections of the Committee on House Administration asked GAO to provide information on how participation in federal elections could be increased. Specifically, the Subcommittee requested that GAO identify the practices of other democracies that encourage voter participation. Additionally, the Subcommittee requested that GAO provide information on state and local efforts to increase voter turnout and, if feasible, to identify particularly successful policies and practices that could be the basis for federal action. At the request of the Subcommittee, we did not fully evaluate registration systems.

Some observers have attributed the low and declining turnout to increased levels of political alienation among U.S. citizens. Others have noted that electoral policies and practices make voting difficult in this country compared to other democracies. Still others believe that, rather than a consequence of political alienation or procedural barriers, low turnout is a reflection of the low level of organized political conflict in the United States compared to other countries.

From a review of the relevant research, GAO concluded that the comparatively low American voter turnout is not the consequence of political alienation. Rather, the evidence points to international differences in the characteristics of political parties and election procedures. Political parties in the United States are less closely aligned with demographic groups than are parties in many other democracies, which may reduce the significance to voters of election outcomes. Moreover, election procedures in the United States make voting cumbersome.

Investigating the interstate differences in voter turnout, GAO found that three election procedures are associated with higher levels of voter turnout: (1) registration deadlines that fall on or close to election day, (2) toll-free phone numbers that allow a voter to request an absentee ballot, and (3) the practice of voting by mail rather than in polling places.

Contrary to popular belief, voter information campaigns generally are not associated with higher turnout. One notable exception is that states that mail information about propositions and referendums to individual households have higher turnout than states that do not provide this service.

continued

TOWARD INCREASING OUR VOTER TURNOUT continued

Finally, some evidence suggests that two actions could slow the continuing decline in voter turnout: (1) providing toll-free phone numbers that allow the voter to find out if he or she is about to be purged from the registration rolls, and (2) staging mock elections in high schools using actual voting equipment and materials.

Table 2.1: Rank Order of 21 Democracies by Voter Turnout[a]

Country	Rank	Turnout
Italy	1	94.0%
Austria	2	89.3
Belgium	3	88.7
Sweden	4	86.8
Portugal	5	85.9
Greece	6	84.9
Netherlands	7	84.7
Australia	8	83.1
Denmark	9	82.1
Norway	10	81.8
West Germany	11	81.1
New Zealand	12	78.5
France	13	78.0
United Kingdom	14	76.0
Japan	15	74.4
Spain	16	73.0
Canada	17	67.4
Finland	18	63.0
Ireland	19	62.3
United States	20	52.6
Switzerland	21	39.4

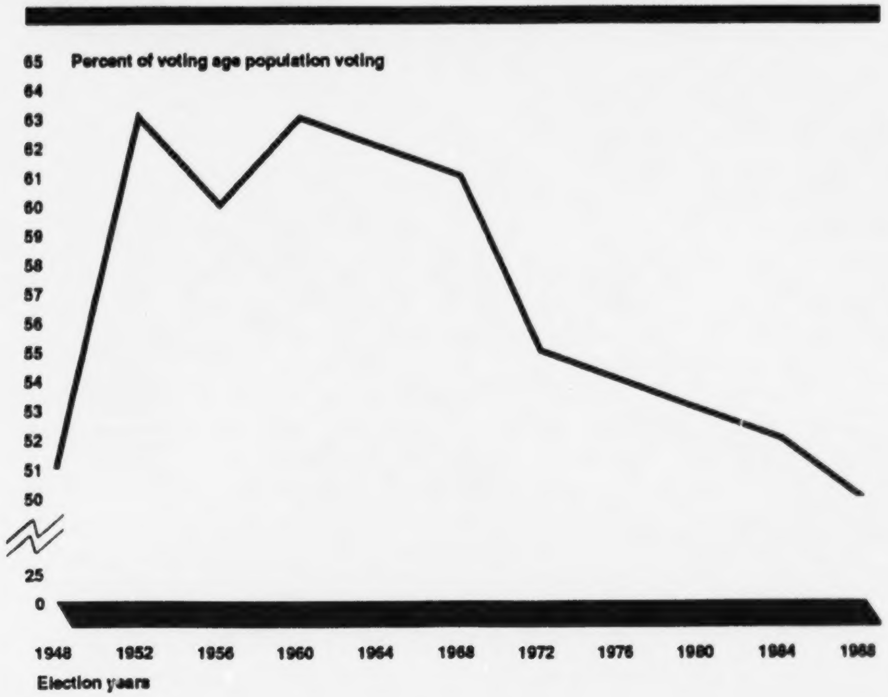
[a] Based on the most recently published compilation, covering elections up to 1981.

Source: D. Glass, P. Squire, and R. Wolfinger, "Voter Turnout: An International Comparison," Public Opinion, 6 (Dec.-Jan. 1984), p. 50.

Not only is voter turnout in the United States lower than in many other democracies, it has been declining. Figure 2.1 shows that the turnout in presidential elections jumped from 51 percent in 1948 to 63 percent in 1952, before dipping to 60 percent in 1956. In 1960, the turnout returned to 63 percent, but in 1964 American voter turnout began a steady downward trend. The decline was only one or two percent per election until 1968, and then from 1968 to 1972 turnout declined from 61 to 55 percent.

continued ⟶

Figure 2.1: U. S. Voter Turnout in Presidential Elections, 1948-88.



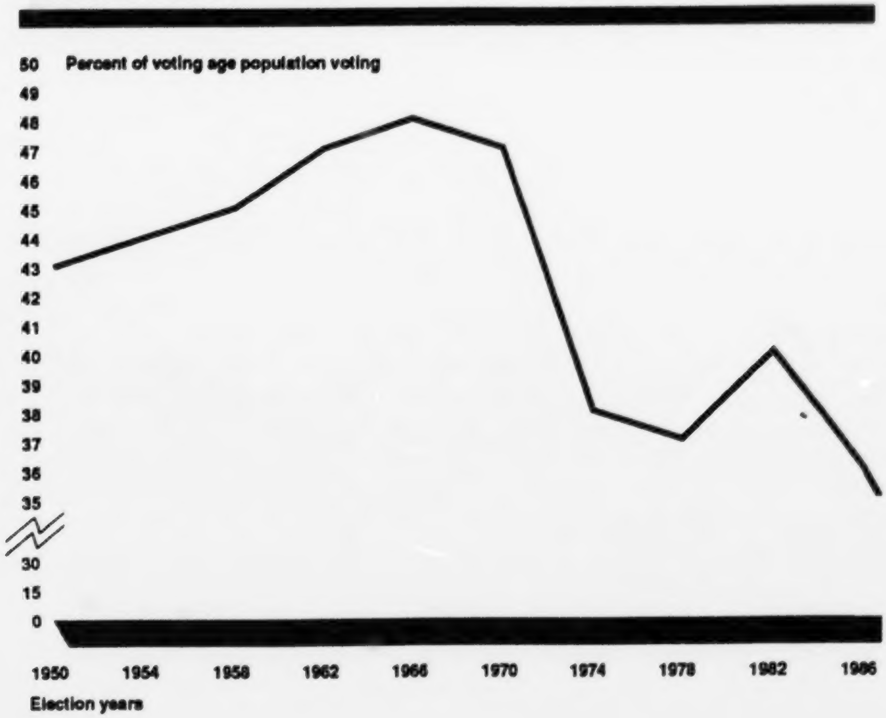
It is important to note that some of the decline from 1968 to 1972 reflects the enfranchisement of 18 to 20-year-olds. 1972 was the first presidential election in which this age group could vote. Research consistently indicates that young people are substantially less likely to vote than are older citizens. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1989) It should be noted, however, that since virtually all industrialized democracies enfranchise 18 to 20-year-olds, allowing young people to vote cannot be cited as one of the reasons why the United States has comparatively lower voter turnout.

From 1972 to 1988, the decline continued, although at a much slower pace. In 1972, 55 percent of the voting age public voted; by 1988, the turnout had dropped to 50 percent.

While turnout for congressional elections in non-presidential (midterm) election years has always been lower than turnout in presidential years, it has followed the same downward trend. Figure 2.2 shows that in 1950 the turnout was 43 percent, that it rose to 48 percent in 1966, dropped sharply to 37 percent in 1978, increased to 40 percent in 1982, and then declined gradually to 36 percent in 1986.

continued

Figure 2.2: U. S. Voter Turnout in Non-Presidential Elections, 1950-86.



There are two issues that make these comparative trends noteworthy. First, with the exception of Switzerland, most industrialized countries have not experienced a decline in turnout comparable to that which has occurred in the United States. (Mackie and Rose, 1982)

Second, the decline in voter turnout since 1960 has occurred despite several trends that should logically have increased participation. There has been a general rise in education since 1960, which should have augmented turnout since citizens with higher levels of education are more likely to vote. Additionally, almost all states have enacted less restrictive registration procedures to increase the convenience of registering. These trends, however, are counterbalanced to some degree by the enfranchisement of 18 to 20-year-olds. Young people are substantially less likely to vote than are older citizens. ❖

THE LARGEST U.S. EDUCATION PROGRAM ACTIVITIES, BY LEVEL: FISCAL YEARS 1980, 1988, AND 1989. IN BILLIONS OF CONSTANT FY89 DOLLARS.

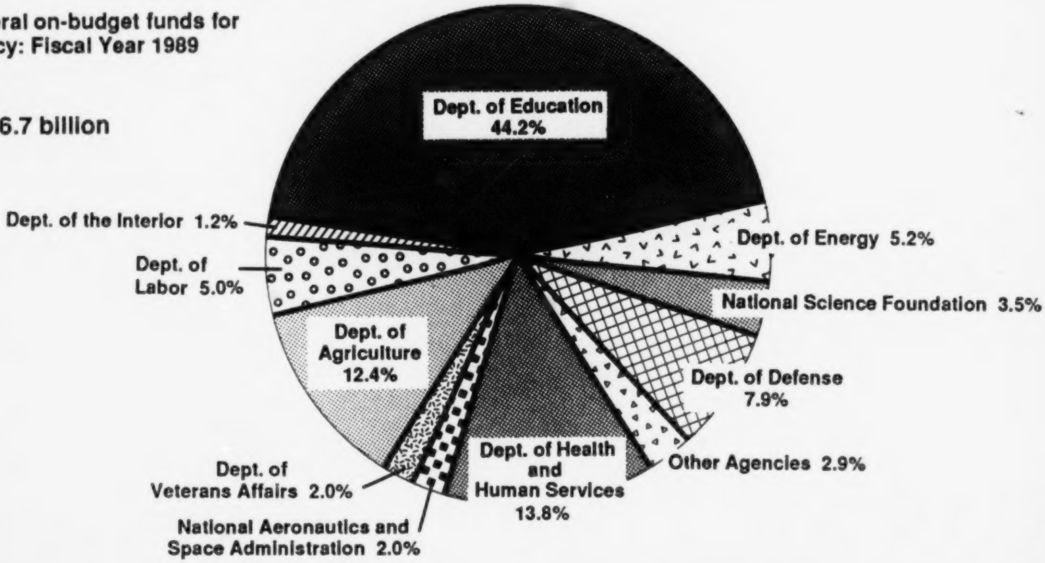
Level and program, by agency	Expenditure FY 80	 FY 88	 FY 89*	Percent Change FY 80 to FY 89
---- Elementary and secondary ----				
Total	$23.9	$19.4	$19.8	- 16.9
Child Nutrition Programs (USDA)	5.0	4.5	4.6	- 8.0
Grants for the Disadvantaged (ED)	4.8	4.2	4.2	- 11.5
Education for the Handicapped (ED)	1.2	1.5	1.9	52.8
Job Training and Partnership Act (DOL)	2.1	1.7	1.6	- 21.2
Head Start (HHS)	1.1	1.3	1.2	12.7
School Improvement Programs (ED)	1.2	.5	1.0	- 6.4
Vocational and Adult Education (ED)	1.3	1.3	0.8	- 35.5
Impact Aid Program (ED)	1.0	0.7	0.7	- 29.9
Overseas Dependents Schools (DOD)	0.5	0.8	0.8	65.5
Job Corps (DOL)	0.7	0.7	0.7	- 0.3
Other elementary/secondary programs	5.0	2.2	2.2	- 56.2
---- Postsecondary education ----				
Total (on-budget)	$16.3	$10.8	$11.9	- 27.0
Student Financial Assistance (ED)	5.5	5.4	5.8	5.5
Guaranteed Student Loans (ED)	2.1	2.9	2.9	40.0
Other postsecondary programs	8.7	2.5	3.2	- 63.6
---- Other ----				
Total	$2.3	$3.1	$3.2	37.7
Rehabilitative Services and Handicapped Research (ED)	.6	1.6	1.6	154.3
Other education programs	1.7	1.5	1.6	- 6.6
---- University research ----				
Total	$8.6	$11.5	$11.8	36.3
Research (HHS)	3.1	4.4	4.4	41.3
Research (DOE)	2.2	2.4	2.4	9.8
Research (DOD)	1.0	1.9	2.0	108.8
Research (NSF)	1.1	1.3	1.5	33.6
Other research programs	1.3	1.5	1.5	17.1

*Estimated.

NOTE: Percentages based on unrounded numbers. See table C in appendix for current dollars.

Distribution of Federal on-budget funds for education, by agency: Fiscal Year 1989

Total = $46.7 billion



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Survey Report. Federal Support for Education. Fiscal Years 1980 to 1989. Pp. 3 & 11.

THE SUBURBAN GENERATION AND THE NEXT AMERICA

The following article by Sylvia F. Fava is reprinted here by permission from thesis (Fall 1990, Pp. 32 & 33), The Magazine of the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York.

> **"...cities are not islands that can be sealed off from the rest of the nation, but the vehicles for our social, cultural, and economic aspirations."**

BY SYLVIA F. FAVA

It is an irony of contemporary American society that the fate of our large cities depends increasingly on the attitudes of adults aged 45 and younger who were not born in urban areas, who neither live nor work in them, and who visit them only occasionally. This "suburban generation" emerged in the period after World War II, when an exclusively suburban existence first became possible for a large percentage of the American population.

Suburbanization is not, of course, an exclusively postwar phenomenon. Indeed, it has been going on since at least 1880. The early suburbs were bastions of status and privilege, but gradually the tendency to escape the city spread down the socio-economic hierarchy. With the "baby boom" that followed the Second World War, they became a place of mass-produced housing for young families. In 1950, according to U.S. census figures, around a quarter of all Americans lived in the suburbs. Ten years later that proportion had reached almost a third. By 1970 suburban Americans had come to constitute 38 percent of the population, outnumbering central city residents (31 percent) for the first time. In the 1980 census, the number of central-city residents had decreased slightly to 30 percent, but the number of non-metropolitan residents (i.e. those living neither in central cities nor in suburbs) had fallen to only 25 percent, making suburbanites the largest population category at 45 percent.

Since then the trend has continued. Census estimates for 1988 central city populations revealed continued decline or at best slow growth, and a 1988 study by William Frey and Alden Speare, which identified six different types of metropolitan areas in the United States, showed that the tendency to suburbanize is strong in all of them. Recent census figures also indicate that nationwide, Americans aged 35 to 44 have increased in number four times faster than the population as a whole over the last decade. This is the first group of postwar baby-boomers, most of whom grew up in the suburbs. They constitute the oldest cohort of the suburban generation, made up of those Americans who have been born in the suburbs since 1945. There can be little doubt now that suburbanites are the dominant and most rapidly increasing part of the U.S. population. Numerically, at least, we are a suburban nation.

The suburban generation is distinguished from earlier crops of suburbanites not only by their dominant numbers but by their lack of significant urban experience. Their parents, by contrast, tended to have some direct familiarity with the various aspects of urban life: multi-family high-rise housing, public transportation, sidewalks crowded with pedestrians, racial and ethnic diversity, and so on. Most of the parental generation, in fact, made the switch from city to suburban living as adults, often retaining urban jobs and becoming classic commuters. However, these jobs had already begun to decentralize to the suburbs, and by the mid-'70s only about a third of employed suburbanites worked in the central cities, according to two different national surveys. The proportion was even smaller for the largest metropolitan areas; in the New York region, for example, only about 20 percent of suburbanites worked in the city in 1978.

As jobs moved to the suburbs, these areas became increasingly autonomous and self-sufficient. In addition to employment and housing, they began to provide an ever-widening range of shopping, entertainment, and recreational opportunities. My own interviews with members of the suburban generation in the New York and Chicago metropolitan areas indicate that as children they were taken to the city for "treats"—to visit museums, go to the theater, eat in special restaurants, or to see holiday attractions like parades. As adults, however, they rarely venture into the city, and almost never visit its residential neighborhoods, save for occasional visits to grandparents. Instead suburbanites tend to make lateral trips among the suburbs for shopping, entertainment, and recreational purposes, causing suburban traffic congestion on a regular and massive scale.

The suburban generation's views of the city are largely formed by the crime and scandal coverage on television and in newspapers rather than first-hand experience. Although most of them see cities as places of excitement and pleasure, they feel ill at ease in them because of their lack of what they call "street smarts." They have difficulty adjusting to dense urban public spaces, and I have observed that they seem to prefer "festival market places" (such as South Street Seaport in New York, Harbor Place in Baltimore, or Quincy Marketplace in Boston) that present sanitized, controlled urban settings combining history, entertainment, and commerce.

Some interesting insights into the values of the suburban generation can be gleaned from a study that Francine Rabinovitz and James Lamare conducted of Westlake, a suburb of Los Angeles. Westlake is a "new community" rather than a suburban subdivision. It has a master plan that aims at controlled variety and self-sufficiency by providing a town center, a wide range of commercial establishments and services, and a variety of employment opportunities, recreational facilities, and single-family and apartment housing (but no low-income housing). The plan also stresses the natural environment by designating certain areas as permanent open space. This is the type of suburb that suburbanites prefer when they move within suburbia. Westlakers do not consciously reject the city; only 9 percent, for instance, were highly negative about Los Angeles. Given the environment in which they live, however, urban concerns do not enter

continued

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their experience or awareness. Rabinowitz and Lamare summarize their conclusions about the priorities of Westlakers in their article "After Suburbia, What?", published in Werner Hirsch's book, *Los Angeles: Viability and Prospects for Urban Leadership* (1971): "Our most striking finding is the degree to which environmental qualities are rated as important by Westlake residents, and the social community as less significant....How one evaluates this depends on how one rates the issue of environment as against the solution of inner-city problems. We think the two are separable, and that middle-class America is beginning to rank environment first."

My own examination of another planned "new community," Reston, Virginia, reveals parallels to Westlake. Reston, a suburb of Washington, was founded in the mid-60s by Robert E. Simon, who along with a determined group of early residents was committed to economic and racial integration, as well as clustered housing to preserve the natural setting. Twenty years later, Reston's low- and even middle-income housing is under siege by market forces, as government subsidies have dried up. Racial integration is "high" only in comparison with the very low minority representation in surrounding suburbs. After a succession of corporate owners Reston is now being marketed to upscale buyers for its natural beauty and the leisure life-style it offers (with pools, bridle paths, wooded walks, etc.). Again we see the idea of community being subordinated to the value placed on an attractive local environment.

Over the last decade we have heard much talk of "gentrification," of a return to the city of the more upwardly mobile members of the suburban generation. The hope is often expressed that this trend will bring about urban revitalization through increased investment and a more positive urban policy. Yet gentrification is limited to only a few cities in the United States, and it is a trickle compared to the Niagara of suburbanization.

A recent Louis Harris survey found that, presented with a range of six residential options, only 13 percent of white Americans chose large cities (defined as those with a population of 250,000 plus) as their preferred place to live; of those white suburbanites who actually planned to move within the next three years, only 3 percent said their destination was the central city of their metropolitan area. My own further analysis of the Harris data reveals that an individual's first residential preference is very often the same as his or her community of origin. Thus the only substantial number of white Americans who would prefer to live in large cities are those who grew up in such cities.

For members of the suburban generation, becoming a city person requires a process of "urban conditioning." It is significant that all of the suburban-to-city migrants I interviewed had temporary but prolonged residential exposure to city life prior to making the transition. Usually they had attended an urban college or university, or had spent a junior year abroad in a large foreign city. This was followed, not always immediately, by the choice of a city job and residence. The experiences reported by these suburban migrants were positive on the whole, contradicting the grim stereotypes of urban existence. They found the diversity, rapid change, and unpredictability of city life stimulating and personally fulfilling. Yet almost all of them said they planned to return to the suburbs, at least for residential purposes, when they had children. (Of the scarce suburban-to-city migrants I spoke to, some were married but none had children at the time of the interviews). The fact that so few of these gentrifiers intended to live out their lives in the city suggests that they are using it as a "staging area" for occupational mobility, adventure, and autonomy.

Members of the surburban generation tend not to see urban problems as their problems; of those I have interviewed, only a few believed they had an obligation to help the inner-city poor and the homeless. Moreover, they are largely unaware of their own dependence on cities as the economic engines that support suburban life-styles. Brian O'Connell reported in his contribution to *Suburbia Re-Examined* (edited by Barbara Kelly, 1989) that suburban college students imagine that, while cities receive government "handouts," suburbia stands on its own; in reality, of course, suburbs are subsidized by the federal, state, and even city governments, in addition to receiving tax advantages.

Why should we care about America's relentless suburbanization, and the fact that ever-larger proportions of the population are seemingly indifferent to the fate of urban areas? Quite apart from issues of social justice, it must be recognized that the position of the United States in the global economy depends on the vitality of its international-class cities: when these cities deteriorate to the point that people are no longer willing to live and work in them, we will be at a severe competitive disadvantage relative to Europe and Japan. Moreover, as social pathologies in the inner cities multiply, they tend to spill over into the outer reaches of our metropolitan areas; increasingly we are seeing our suburbs plagued with the heretofore urban ills of crime, drugs, and homelessness.

Under Ronald Reagan—the suburban president par excellence—federal revenue-sharing with the cities was curtailed, housing subsidies were sharply cut back, and tax policy became more unfavorable to urban areas. As a result our cities are more beleaguered than ever, and we are moving rapidly toward being a nation that is "half suburb, half slum," in the words of Felix Rohatyn. This trend will not be reversed until the electorate—and the suburban generation in particular—realize that cities are not islands that can be sealed off from the rest of the nation, but the vehicles for our social, cultural, and economic aspirations. ◆

U.S. CIGARETTE EXPORTS SURGE

The outlook for U.S. tobacco appears more bullish now than it did 5 years ago, despite continuing declines in domestic cigarette consumption. A big part of the improved sales outlook is the dramatic growth in U.S. cigarette exports. Along with this growth, significant changes in the tobacco price support-production control program since 1986 have helped balance the supply and demand for tobacco leaf and raised grower returns.

In 1985, U.S. sales abroad totaled 59 billion cigarettes, 29 percent below the 1981 peak of 83 billion. The 1985 figure was a little higher than the previous year, and the weakening dollar pointed to further increases. But the growth in exports since 1985 appeared next to impossible back then.

In 1990, the U.S. probably is exporting 160 billion cigarettes, almost three times the 1985 mark, The phenomenal growth partly reflects lowered trade barriers in Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea. Also, the high quality of U.S. cigarettes, rising incomes in importing countries, and the weakening of the dollar are pushing up foreign demand.

Recent developments in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union are boosting cigarette exports even more. As they move toward market-oriented systems, several East European countries are showing increased interest in U.S. cigarettes.

U.S. manufacturers have already agreed to sell over 35 billion cigarettes to the Soviet Union over the next 2 years, with further sales expected. While the Soviets will swap goods for a portion of the cigarettes, some analysts are concerned that the USSR will have trouble putting together enough hard currency to pay for the rest of the planned import surge.

U.S. companies have set up manufacturing plants in what was East Germany, a strong sign of the region's hunger for the U.S. product.

In addition, Thailand has agreed to abide by a recent GATT ruling against its 10-year ban on cigarette imports. Efforts to open the Thai market were hampered by an unusual alliance between U.S. anti-smoking groups and the Thai tobacco industry.

The removal of the import ban will bolster the U.S. share of the Thai market. However, the GATT panel upheld the Thai ban on all cigarette advertising "on the grounds of public health."

Domestic Use Is Still Dropping

The big boost in cigarette exports is more than offsetting declines in U.S. consumption. U.S. cigarette production fell 20 percent from 1981 to 1985, but rose in 1987 and 1988. Output this year may be 3 percent above 1985 despite a 12-percent drop in domestic consumption over the last 5 years.

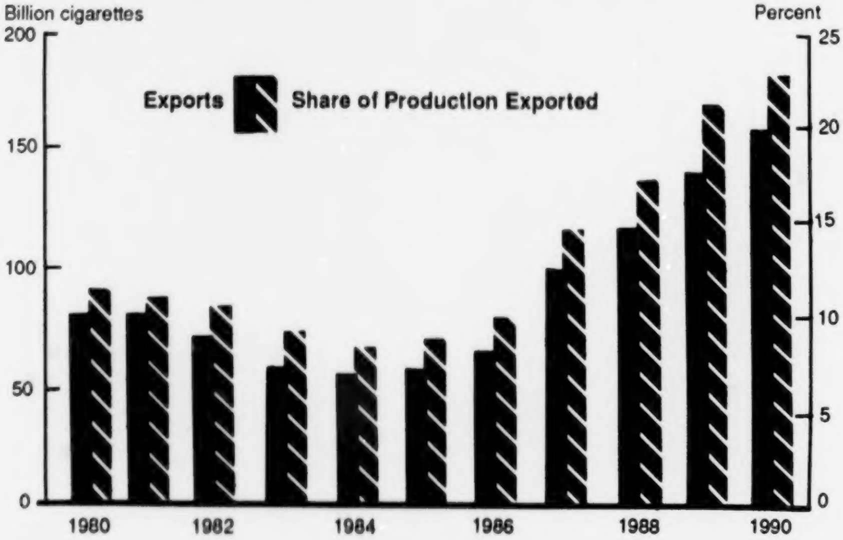
The continued decline in U.S. cigarette consumption is due to rising prices and taxes, slipping social acceptance, health concerns, and restrictions on where people can smoke. Consumption could well decline 3 percent or more each year during the 1990's. Retail cigarette prices have risen about 55 percent since 1985, in part due to higher state excise taxes. In addition, an increase in the federal tax rate was approved for 1991.

A July 1990 Gallup poll survey indicated a growing "antismoking" sentiment in the U.S. Smoking restrictions have increased markedly and smoking is now banned on all continental U.S. airline flights and all flights to and from Alaska and Hawaii that last less than 6 hours.

Even though cigarette consumption is declining, Americans will spend a record $44 billion on tobacco products in 1990. About 95 percent will be for cigarettes. The expenditures represent 1.1 percent of U.S. disposable personal income and have remained at about that share for more than a decade.

Snuff is the only tobacco product showing gains in U.S. consumption since 1985. Even so, snuff consumption fell in 1986 and 1987. Increased use from 1988 to 1990 possibly resulted from growing restrictions on smoking, stable employment in industries where workers typically use smokeless tobacco, and effective industry promotion.

U.S. Cigarette Exports Have Almost Tripled Since 1985



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Outlook, December 1990. Pp. 13 & 14.

PROFILES

1 Billion Jobs Needed by Century's End

One billion new jobs need to be created worldwide in the 1990s to absorb the unemployed and the expected rise of 360 million new jobseekers, a top international official said here.

Jean Francois Tremeaud, assistant director-general of the International Labor Organization (ILO), said the employment problem poses an "enormous challenge" in the Third World.

In developing nations, he pointed out, the population increase in the decade of the 1990s will exceed the population of the world's industrial nations.

International Labor Organization's ILO Washington Focus, Vol.3, No.5, December 1990.

"The U.S. information, computer, and communications industries as a whole are more than three times larger than the [U.S.] automobile industry and nine times largers than the [U.S.] steel industry."

Library of Congress. Congressional Research Service. CRS Review, July-August 1990. Pp. 2&3.

Comecon Out, Free Market In

The Soviet-led trading bloc Comecon, a victim of Eastern Europe's rush to the free market, announced its dissolution January 5, 1991 amid preparations for a new, more modern market-oriented organization. Formal approval by all nine Comecon members was expected in Budapest the following month. A communique said the new body will be known as the Organization for Internatinal Economic Cooperation.

The Boston Globe,
January 6, 1991.

A National Treasure

We use it, we abuse it, we take it for granted. And yet life itself is impossible without it.

We need it more than we need oil or gold.

It is our water. The water we drink, the water for our farms and ranches, the water for our industries. It is the lifeblood of our nation -- now and for the future.

From a 17" x 22" poster, "A National Treasure", by the Soil Conservaton Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. August 1990.

First Monument In Germany To War Deserters Unveiled

Göttingen (Lower Saxony) recently became the first city in the Federal Republic to dedicate a monument to soldiers who deserted the German Army during the Second World War. The monument, which was officially unveiled at a ceremony on Antiwar Day, September 1, by Göttingen Mayor Artur Levi, was created by sculptor Joachim Nitsch. It has been installed at the so-called *Amtshaus*, which served as barracks for the 82nd Infantry Regiment from 1871 to 1945.

The large granite slab shows a trampled Nazi flag to symbolize desertion and a cherry tree branch with the words "Not out of fear of death, but rather because of the will to live," a sentence from the book *Kirschen der Freiheit* (Cherries of Freedom), by Alfred Andersch (1914-1980), in which the writer describes his own desertion. Andersch was stationed in Italy, when in June 1944 he crossed the battle lines and surrendered to U.S. troops. The inscription reads "To the deserters who refused for reasons of conscience to engage in war for the National Socialist dictatorship and who were persecuted, murdered and slandered."

The unveiling of the monument is the result of years of effort by a Göttingen pacifist group and has been the subject of much public discussion in Göttingen. A spokesperson for the group, Eckart Stedeler, said that the monument was intended to stimulate reflection upon and discussion of "the false ideals of heroism, unconditional obedience and readiness to sacrifice oneself." These ideals are expressed in the inscription on a nearby war memorial, which reads "Loyal unto death," Stedeler said. The efforts of the group were supported by the Social Democratic and Green parties in Göttingen and opposed by the Christian Democrats, who described the monument as "an embarrassment."

A similar monument had been planned for the city of Bonn; however, after arousing displeasure there, the city of Potsdam agreed to install it on that city's "Unity Square."

German Information Center, 950 Third Ave., New York NY 10022. The Week in Germany, September 28, 1990. P. 6.

continued ⟶

PROFILES continued

Study: In Germany, Young Male Computer Fans Avoid Emotional Connections

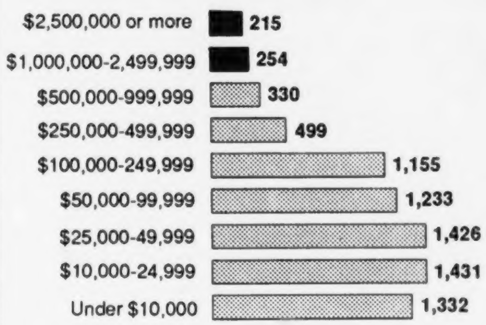
According to a recent study, boys and young men who spend a large portion of their time at the computer may miss an important stage in the personality development of young people: the confrontation with the world of adults. The study, which was funded by the Ministry for Research and Technology and carried out by the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt am Main, looked at the lives of 450 youths between 10 and 23 years of age who spent at least 7 hours a week at their computers, at least half of which was spent programming. It sought to determine how such involvement with the computer influenced the youths' personalities and to gather data on their self-image and conception of the future. Girls were not included in the study, according to the institute, because too few of them met the criteria.

The results showed a stable, staid personality: family, career, and achievement were stressed and many saw the computers as a stepping-stone to a later career. They seemed to be politically neutral and even unaware of societal conflicts. Their relationships, mostly with other computer programmers, are tinged with competition.

According to the study, the computer allows many of the youths to sidestep the natural conflicts of adolescence. The researchers say that working with the computer gives the youths a chance to "try out adult male traits" and establish their masculinity; because girls are at a remove, they spare themselves male-female confrontations as well.

German Information Center, 950 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022. The Week in Germany, January 25, 1991. P. 7.

In the U.S., Almost 8,000 Companies Have 500 Or More Employees



According to the 1987 Economic Censuses, 7,875 companies had 500 employees or more. These companies owned a half million establishements and employed 28 million workers. Their sales and receipts totaled over $3 trillion.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You, December 1990.

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. Items in PROFILES are indexed. Example: a PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18. OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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BUDGET HIGHLIGHTS

The following material was printed by The Boston Globe on February 5, 191, page 13, the day after the Administration's budget for Fiscal Year 1992 was released. Note that under Defense, the cost of the Gulf War is not included. Note also some subsequent comments on the costs of the Gulf War in the box at lower right, excerpted from The Boston Globe, February 23, 1991, page 6.

OVERVIEW: Bush proposed a $1.45 trillion budget with a $318 billion deficit, the largest in history. The budget is based on an increase in spending of 2.6 percent, which translates into a spending decrease in real terms because it is lower than the 4.3 percent inflation rate. Bush proposed increases in some programs, especially in science and the environment, and proposed eliminating 3,500 programs and projects.

Here are some highlights:

EDUCATION: Bush proposed an education reform effort, including a program under which many families could use publicly funded vouchers for their children to attend private schools. Bush's overall proposal is similar to that put forward at an education conference attended by the nation's governors in Charlottesville, Va.

TAXES: Bush proposed cutting the capital gains tax rate, but most observers believe it has little chance for passage. Bush proposed no new taxes, but many of the tax hikes approved in last year's budget deal are set to go into effect this year.

HOUSING: The centerpiece of Bush's proposed housing program is the $2.2 billion Project Hope, which is intended in part to allow lower-income families to purchase public housing units. Bush also proposed allowing money to be withdrawn from an Individual Retirement Account without penalty if it is used for a first-time home purchase. And he said he wanted housing construction to be spurred through the creation of low-tax enterprise zones in depressed urban areas.

DEFENSE: Bush proposed $295.2 billion, which is $3.7 billion less than the current budget. But that figure does not include the cost of the war in the gulf, which is estimated to cost $28 billion if it is over within a month and up to $100 billion if it is over within six months. The administration has said it expects the allies to pick up much of the cost, leaving the United States with a burden of perhaps $15 billion, but much depends on the length of the war. The war costs are put off budget until the conflict is over, and then they become part of the deficit.

ENVIRONMENT: Bush proposed an increase in numerous environmental programs, as well as a $100 million contribution to the cleanup of Boston Harbor. Many programs required under the Clean Air Act, including an acid rain cleanup, will be funded.

HEALTH: Bush proposed cutting Medicare by $25 billion over five years, a cost that largely would be borne by hospitals and doctors. Bush also proposed cutting Medicare benefits to those earning more than $125,000. Bush proposed a major health system reform, saying that health care consumes 15 percent of the budget and that costs must come down.

SCIENCE: The president requested one of the largest proportionate increases, a 13 percent boost over the previous year. Much of the additional spending will be in science programs associated with the military. The space program will also be increased by 13 percent. Bush proposed a 7 percent jump in medical research grants and a 5 percent increase in funding to fights AIDS. Bush also proposed that the research and development tax credit be preserved, and that math and science education programs be improved.

TRANSPORTATION: With the federal highway system nearly complete, Bush proposed that the program be changed to focus on the repair of roads and bridges. Bush also said he backed "funding for major technological advances in high-speed rail," but it was not immediately clear how this would affect the New York-to-Boston corridor.

JUSTICE: Bush proposed a 15 percent increase in the Justice Department, to $10 billion, including an 8 percent increase in funding to fight the war on drugs.

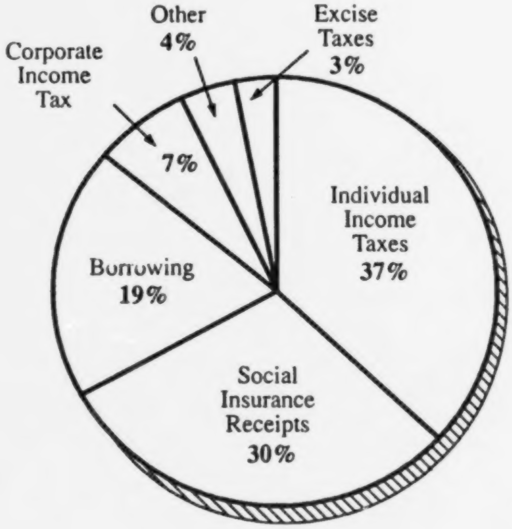
Reprinted courtesy of The Boston Globe.

On February 22, the Bush administration proposed legislation for $15 billion to help pay for the Persian Gulf war. The remainder of the then estimated $58 billion to $77 billion war costs were to be paid by U.S. allies. These figures assumed the war would be over by the end of March.

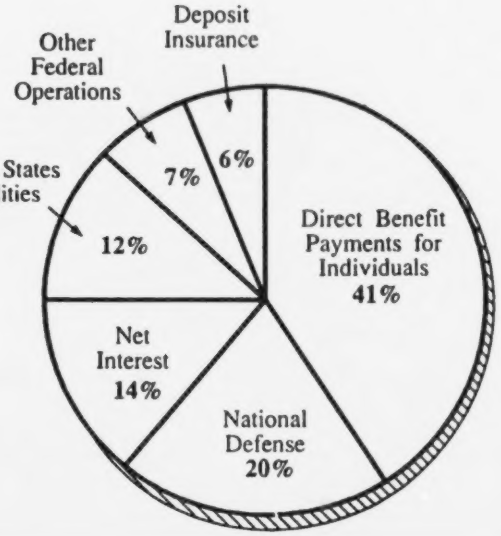
Budget Director Richard G. Darman was quoted as saying that "any balances in the capital account available after payment of all Desert Shield and Desert Storm incremental costs would revert to the Treasury." Darman also said, on February 22, that $53.5 billion in foreign contributions had been pledged to the war effort, including in-kind contributions of equipment and material. And he acknowledged that estimates of the war's daily costs varied widely (from a low of $150 million to as much as $1.65 billion), depending largely on the amount of munitions used.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT DOLLAR FISCAL YEAR 1992 ESTIMATE

Where It Comes From...



Where It Goes...



RECEIPTS, OUTLAYS, DEFICIT/SURPLUS UNDER THE PRESIDENT'S PROPOSED POLICY

(In billions of dollars)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Receipts	1,031.3	1,091.4	1,165.0	1,252.7	1,365.3	1,467.3	1,560.7
Outlays	1,251.7	1,409.6	1,445.9	1,454.2	1,427.1	1,470.3	1,540.8
Surplus or Deficit (+/-)	-220.4	-318.1	-280.9	-201.5	-61.8	-2.9	+19.9

Source: Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992. 2,026 pages. February 4, 1991. Part One, P. 2

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THE BUDGET MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Congress of the United States:

I am pleased to present the *Budget of the United States Government for Fiscal Year 1992.*

The budget is consistent with the 5-year deficit reduction law enacted last fall. It recommends discretionary spending levels that fall within the statutory caps for defense, international, and domestic discretionary programs. It implements the entitlement savings and reforms enacted in the Budget Agreement. It conforms to the new pay-as-you-go requirements.

By holding the overall rate of growth of Federal Government spending to approximately 2.6 percent—below the inflation rate—the budget puts into effect the concept of a "flexible freeze," which is an essential means of bringing the budget into long-term balance.

The longest period of peacetime economic expansion in history has been temporarily interrupted. We can, however, return to growth soon—and proceed on the path to a new era of expansion. With that goal in mind, the budget places special priority on policies that will enhance America's potential for long-term economic growth, and that will give individuals the power to take advantage of the opportunity America uniquely offers.

To this end, I am again proposing tax incentives to increase savings and long-term investment.

On the spending side of the budget, the existence of a cap on domestic discretionry outlays rightly creates a competition for resources. Priorities must be set. This budget proposes that domestic investment be increased in the following key areas:

Education and Human Capital.–The budget proposes investments to prepare children better for school, to promote choice and excellence in our educational system, to improve math and science education, and to increase the access of low-income Americans to higher education.

Prevention and the Next Generation.–The budget includes proposals to help reduce illness and death from preventable diseases, and to reverse the long-term trend of underinvestment in children.

Research and Development and the Human Frontier.–The budget recommends an increase of $8.4 billion in the Federal investment in research and development, with special emphasis on basic research, high performance computing, and energy research and development. It proposes to extend permanently the tax credit for research and experimentation to encourage private sector R&D investment. In addition, the budget reflects the Administration's continued commitment to expanding human frontiers in space and biotechnology.

Transportation Infrastructure.–The budget supports an expansion of the Federal Government's investment in highways and bridges to over $20 billion within 5 years, and proposes substantial increases to improve the condition of the Nation's airports, to modernize the air traffic control system, and to continue to develop the transportation infrastructure for exploration and use of space.

America's Heritage and Environmental Protection.–The budget includes increased funds for the expansion and improvement of America's treasury of parks, forests, wildlife refuges, and other public lands; for the implementation of the Clean Air Act and other key environmental statutes; for the cleanup of pollution at various Federal facilities and at Superfund sites; and for protection and enhancement of coastal areas and wetlands.

Choice and Opportunity.–The budget provides: funds to help give parents greater choice in child care, health care, education, and housing; the resources to allow *all* Americans, especially those with low incomes, to seize the opportunities that such choice provides; and a

continued ⟶

BUDGET MESSAGE continued

proposal to establish Enterprise Zones to bring hope to our inner cities and distressed rural areas.

Drugs and Crime.–The budget further increases the Administration's investment in drug prevention, treatment, and law enforcement. And the budget substantially increases the resources available to help the Federal Bureau of Investigation fight crime, the Federal prosecutors prosecute criminals, and the Federal prison system accommodate those convicted of crimes.

To make such investments possible, the budget includes recommendations to terminate or reduce Federal investment in certain low-return programs, and proposes reforms to slow the continuing growth of mandatory entitlement programs and to increase fairness in the distribution of the benefits these programs provide.

In addition, the budget contains a new proposal to fund various programs now carried out by the States through a comprehensive block grant. The States are continuing to develop new and innovative ways to deliver services more effectively. The budget not only highlights several of these innovations; it proposes to reinforce and build upon them.

The budget contains several proposals that reflect my commitment to managing government better. These include measures to improve accountability, to reduce waste, to reform regulation, to employ risk management budgeting in addressing threats to health and safety, and to set clear objectives and measure performance in meeting them.

Finally, consistent with the statutory caps enacted last year, the budget provides the resources necessary to maintain national security, and to better advance American interests abroad. As the budget goes to press, the timing of the resolution of the multinational coalition's efforts to reverse the aggression in the Persian Gulf is uncertain. For this reason, the budget reflects only a placeholder for Operation Desert Shield. A supplemental request for the incremental costs of Desert Shield, which includes Desert Storm, will be forwarded to the Congress in the coming weeks.

The priority investments embodied in this budget will help America prepare for the requirements and opportunities presented by a rapidly changing world. I look forward to working with the Congress in developing a budget that lays the groundwork for a brighter future, protects our national interests, and helps create the conditions for long-term economic growth and prosperity.

GEORGE BUSH

FEBRUARY 4, 1991

Source: Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992. 2,026 pages. February 4, 1991. Part One, Pp. 3 & 4.

A very helpful 20-page booklet World Eagle editors came upon:
The Budget System and Concepts of The United States Goverment
(dated January 1991)
$1.00 check or money order to:
Superintendent of Documents,
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington DC 20402
Specify Stock No. 041-001-00359-2

RELATIONSHIP OF BUDGET AUTHORITY TO OUTLAYS

The Congress must usually provide budget authority, which is generally in the form of appropriations, before Federal agencies can obligate the Government to make outlays. For 1992, the Administration proposes $1,577.8 billion of new budget authority for the Federal Government. Of this amount, $1,260.7 billion is for agencies included in the budget and $317.1 billion is for off-budget Federal entities.

Of this total new budget authority, both on-budget and off-budget, $764.8 billion will require congressional action. New budget authority of $1,079.4 billion will be available through permanent appropriations under existing law. This consists mainly of trust fund receipts, which in most trust fund programs are automatically appropriated under existing law, interest on the public debt, for which budget authority is automatically provided under a permanent appropriation enacted in 1847, and the authority to spend offsetting collections credited to appropriation or fund accounts. Budget authority for the medicare, railroad retirement, and unemployment insurance trust funds was changed by statute last year, so that it equals estimated outlays of the funds rather than the funds' receipts. The gross amount of new budget authority is partially offset by $266.4 billion of deductions for offsetting collections, which consist of proprietary receipts and collections from the public and collections of one Government account from another.

Not all of the new budget authority for 1992 will be obligated or spent in that year:[1]

- Budget authority for most trust funds comes from the authority of these funds to spend their receipts. Any balances remain available to these trust funds indefinitely in order to finance benefits and other purposes specified by law.
- Budget authority for most major construction and procurement projects covers the entire cost estimated when the projects are initiated, even though work will take place and outlays will be made over a period extending beyond the year for which the budget authority is enacted. The law provides some exceptions to this legal requirement, notably for water resource programs.
- Budget authority for large portions of the subsidized housing programs is equal to the Govern-

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[1] This subject is also discussed in a separate OMB report, "Balances of Budget Authority," which can be purchased from the National Technical Information Service shortly after the budget is transmitted.

Table D–1. **BUDGET AUTHORITY**

(In billions of dollars)

Description	1990 actual	1991 estimate	1992 estimate	1993 estimate	1994 estimate
Available through current action by the Congress:					
Enacted and pending appropriations	635.1	678.3			
Proposed in this budget:					
Appropriations			678.8	683.6	739.6
Supplemental requests		2.0			
Rescission proposals		–4.2			
To be requested separately:					
Upon enactment of proposed legislation		62.9	86.0	7.4	0.2
Allowances:					
Civilian agencies[1]			0.1	0.1	0.1
Department of Defense-Military[2]		29.0	–0.3	–0.9	–4.8
Subtotal, available through current action by Congress	635.1	768.0	764.8	691.0	739.8
Available without current action by Congress (permanent appropriations):					
Trust funds (existing law)	563.7	606.2	647.7	695.9	749.6
On-budget	(255.8)	(276.4)	(296.6)	(316.0)	(337.1)
Off-budget	(307.9)	(329.8)	(351.1)	(380.0)	(412.4)
Interest on the public debt	264.8	286.3	304.0	320.0	330.0
Other	134.8	125.6	127.7	113.0	88.0
Subtotal, available without current action by Congress	963.3	1,018.1	1,079.4	1,128.8	1,167.6
Deductions for offsetting receipts	**–229.9**	**–266.1**	**–266.4**	**–286.2**	**–301.6**
On-budget	(–203.7)	(–234.6)	(–230.6)	(–245.1)	(–254.6)
Off-budget	(–26.3)	(–31.5)	(–35.8)	(–41.1)	(–46.9)
Total, budget authority	**1,368.5**	**1,520.0**	**1,577.8**	**1,533.7**	**1,605.8**
On-budget	(1,083.8)	(1,218.9)	(1,260.7)	(1,193.1)	(1,239.0)
Off-budget	(284.7)	(301.1)	(317.1)	(340.6)	(366.9)

[1] Allowances for Government contribution for proposed Public Health Service (PHS) commissioned corps retirement accrual.

[2] Allowances for Operation Desert Shield placeholder.

continued ↗

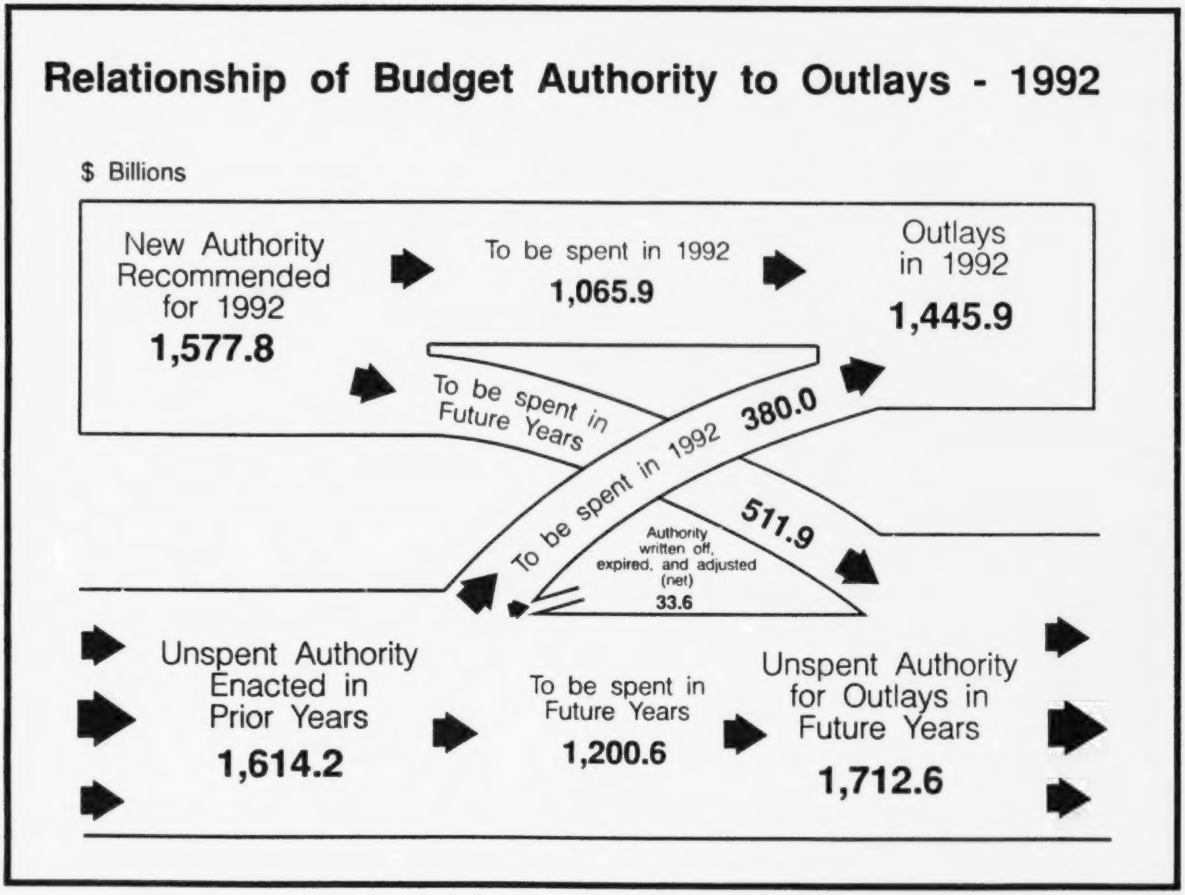
continued

ment's estimated obligation to pay subsidies under contracts, which may extend for periods of up to 20 years.

- Budget authority for most other long-term contracts also covers the estimated maximum obligation of the Government.
- Budget authority for most education and job training activity is appropriated for school or program years that begin with the fourth quarter of the fiscal year. Most of these funds result in outlays in the year after the year of appropriation.
- Prior to the effective date of credit reform in 1992, budget authority for many direct loan and loan guarantee programs was not closely related to outlays in any particular year. Under credit reform the budget authority for new direct loans and new loan gurantees will be the amount required to finance the anticipated subsidy calculated on a net present value basis.
- Government enterprises and insurance programs are occasionally given budget authority for reserves that will be used only in the event of special circumstances.

As a result of these factors, a substantial amount of budget authority carries over from one year to the next. Most of this is earmarked for specific uses and is not available for new programs. A small part may never be obligated or spent, primarily the amount for contingencies that do not occur or reserves that never have to be used.

As shown in the following chart, $380.0 billion of the outlays in 1992 (26 percent of the total) will be made from budget authority enacted in previous years. At the same time, $511.9 billion of the new budget authority proposed for 1992 (32 percent of the total amount proposed) will not lead to outlays until future years. Thus, the total budget authority for a particular year is not useful for the analysis of that year's outlays, since it combines various types of budget authority that have different short-term and long-term implications for budget obligations and outlays.



Relationship of Budget Authority to Outlays - 1992

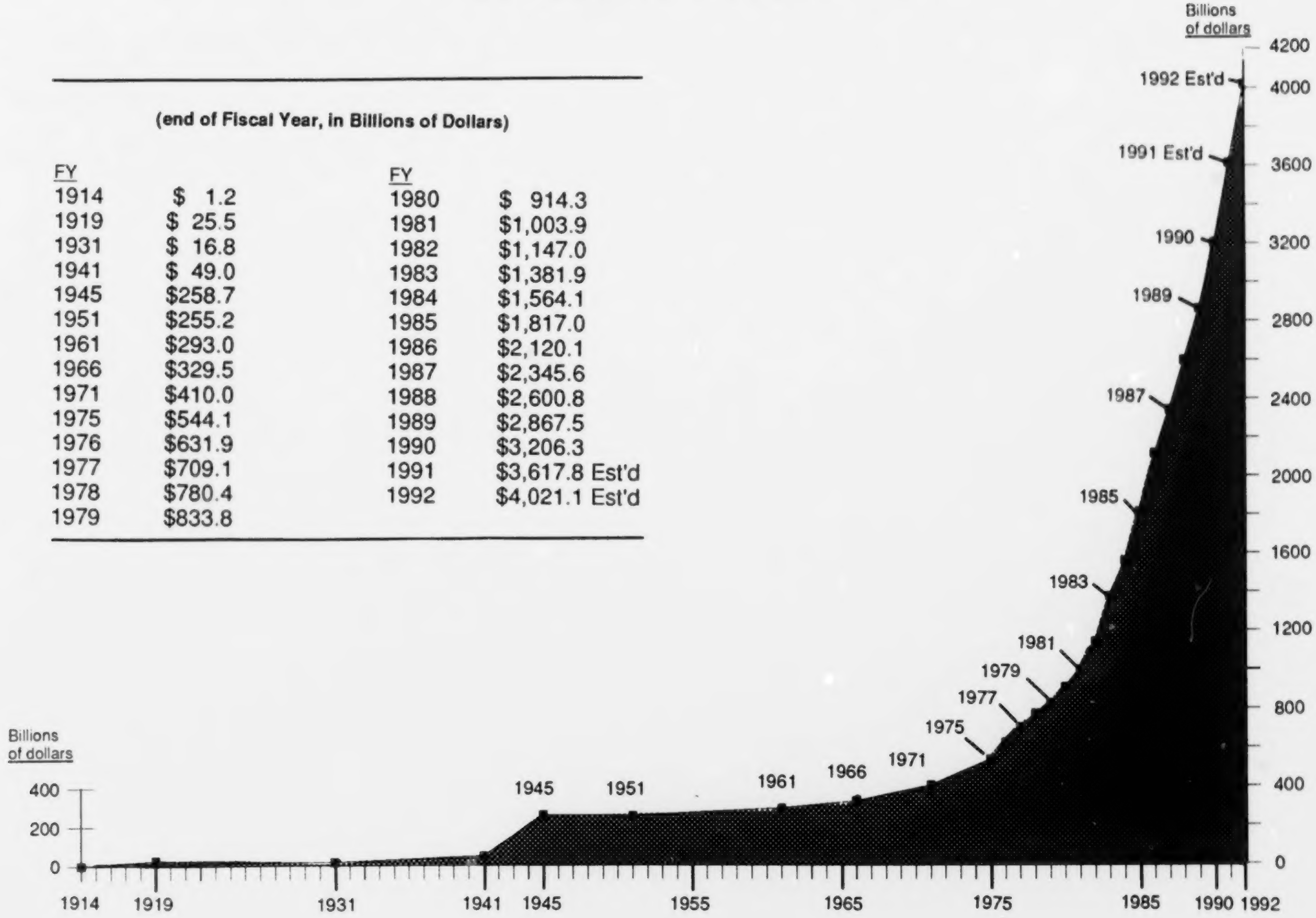
$ Billions
New Authority Recommended for 1992
1,577.8
To be spent in 1992
1,065.9
Outlays in 1992
1,445.9
To be spent in Future Years
To be spent in 1992
380.0
511.9
Authority written off, expired, and adjusted (net)
33.6
Unspent Authority Enacted in Prior Years
1,614.2
To be spent in Future Years
1,200.6
Unspent Authority for Outlays in Future Years
1,712.6

Source: Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992. 2,026 pages. February 4, 1991. Part Four, Pp. 205-206.

U.S. FEDERAL DEBT PROJECTED TO TOP $4 TRILLION BY END OF FY1992

(end of Fiscal Year, in Billions of Dollars)

FY		FY	
1914	$ 1.2	1980	$ 914.3
1919	$ 25.5	1981	$1,003.9
1931	$ 16.8	1982	$1,147.0
1941	$ 49.0	1983	$1,381.9
1945	$258.7	1984	$1,564.1
1951	$255.2	1985	$1,817.0
1961	$293.0	1986	$2,120.1
1966	$329.5	1987	$2,345.6
1971	$410.0	1988	$2,600.8
1975	$544.1	1989	$2,867.5
1976	$631.9	1990	$3,206.3
1977	$709.1	1991	$3,617.8 Est'd
1978	$780.4	1992	$4,021.1 Est'd
1979	$833.8		



World Eagle Chart.
Figures for 1984-1988 are from The United States Budget in Brief Fiscal Year 1990, January 9, 1989. Table 1. Figures for 1989 and 1990 and Estimates for 1991 and 1992 are from Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992, February 4, 1991. Part Seven, P. 71.

TOTAL GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS IN ABSOLUTE AMOUNTS AND AS PERCENTAGES OF GNP, 1947-1990

(in millions of dollars)

Fiscal Year	In Absolute Amounts					Fiscal Year GNP	As Percentages of GNP		
	Total Government Receipts	Federal Government Receipts			State and Local Government Tax Receipts (NIPA Basis)		Total Government Receipts	Federal Government Receipts	State and Local Government Tax Receipts (NIPA Basis)
		Total	On-Budget	Off-Budget					
1947	50.4	38.5	37.1	1.5	11.9	223.6	22.6	17.2	5.3
1948	55.3	41.6	39.9	1.6	13.7	247.8	22.3	16.8	5.5
1949	54.7	39.4	37.7	1.7	15.2	263.9	20.7	14.9	5.8
1950	56.0	39.4	37.3	2.1	16.6	266.8	21.0	14.8	6.2
1951	70.3	51.6	48.5	3.1	18.6	315.0	22.3	16.4	5.9
1952	86.4	66.2	62.6	3.6	20.2	342.4	25.2	19.3	5.9
1953	91.7	69.6	65.5	4.1	22.1	365.6	25.1	19.0	6.0
1954	93.1	69.7	65.1	4.6	23.4	369.5	25.2	18.9	6.3
1955	90.5	65.5	60.4	5.1	25.1	386.4	23.4	16.9	6.5
1956	102.5	74.6	68.2	6.4	28.0	418.1	24.5	17.8	6.7
1957	110.5	80.0	73.2	6.8	30.5	440.5	25.1	18.2	6.9
1958	112.0	79.6	71.6	8.0	32.3	450.2	24.9	17.7	7.2
1959	114.5	79.2	71.0	8.3	35.3	481.5	23.8	16.5	7.3
1960	131.2	92.5	81.9	10.6	38.7	506.7	25.9	18.3	7.6
1961	136.3	94.4	82.3	12.1	41.9	518.2	26.3	18.2	8.1
1962	144.8	99.7	87.4	12.3	45.2	557.7	26.0	17.9	8.1
1963	154.9	106.6	92.4	14.2	48.3	587.8	26.4	18.1	8.2
1964	165.0	112.6	96.2	16.4	52.4	629.2	26.2	17.9	8.3
1965	173.2	116.8	100.1	16.7	56.4	672.6	25.8	17.4	8.4
1966	193.2	130.8	111.7	19.1	62.3	739.0	26.1	17.7	8.4
1967	215.9	148.8	124.4	24.4	67.1	794.6	27.2	18.7	8.4
1968	229.4	153.0	128.1	24.9	76.4	849.4	27.0	18.0	9.0
1969	272.4	186.9	157.9	29.0	85.5	929.5	29.3	20.1	9.2
1970	289.7	192.8	159.3	33.5	96.9	990.2	29.3	19.5	9.8
1971	291.9	187.1	151.3	35.8	104.8	1,055.9	27.6	17.7	9.9
1972	328.0	207.3	167.4	39.9	120.7	1,153.1	28.4	18.0	10.5
1973	365.0	230.8	184.7	46.1	134.2	1,281.4	28.5	18.0	10.5
1974	408.5	263.2	209.3	53.9	145.2	1,416.5	28.8	18.6	10.3
1975	436.6	279.1	216.6	62.5	157.5	1,522.5	28.7	18.3	10.3
1976	473.3	298.1	231.7	66.4	175.3	1,698.2	27.9	17.6	10.3
TQ	124.4	81.2	63.2	18.0	43.2	448.7	27.7	18.1	9.6
1977	556.6	355.6	278.7	76.8	201.0	1,933.0	28.8	18.4	10.4
1978	621.4	399.6	314.2	85.4	221.8	2,171.8	28.6	18.4	10.2
1979	697.7	463.3	365.3	98.0	234.4	2,447.8	28.5	18.9	9.6
1980	772.1	517.1	403.9	113.2	255.0	2,670.6	28.9	19.4	9.5
1981	880.7	599.3	469.1	130.2	281.4	2,986.4	29.5	20.1	9.4
1982	923.4	617.8	474.3	143.5	305.7	3,139.1	29.4	19.7	9.7
1983	930.5	600.6	453.2	147.3	330.0	3,321.9	28.0	18.1	9.9
1984	1,037.0	666.5	500.4	166.1	370.6	3,687.7	28.1	18.1	10.0
1985	1,131.2	734.1	547.9	186.2	397.2	3,952.4	28.6	18.6	10.0
1986	1,194.6	769.1	568.9	200.2	425.5	4,180.8	28.6	18.4	10.2
1987	1,313.6	854.1	640.7	213.4	459.5	4,424.7	29.7	19.3	10.4
1988	1,397.8	909.0	667.5	241.5	488.8	4,780.4	29.2	19.0	10.2
1989	1,516.6	990.7	727.0	263.7	525.9	5,131.3	29.6	19.3	10.2
1990	1,586.8	1,031.3	749.7	281.7	555.5	5,405.6	29.4	19.1	10.3

Source: Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992. 2,026 pages. February 4, 1991. Part Seven, P. 178

OUTLAYS BY SUPERFUNCTION AND FUNCTION: 1988-1996

Superfunction and Function	1988	1989	1990	1991 estimate	1992 estimate	1993 estimate	1994 estimate	1995 estimate	1996 estimate
In millions of dollars									
National defense	**290,361**	**303,559**	**299,331**	**298,910**	**295,245**	**291,986**	**286,666**	**288,620**	**293,235**
Human resources	**533,404**	**568,668**	**619,327**	**692,058**	**746,982**	**796,406**	**850,122**	**903,424**	**956,840**
Education, training, employment, and social services	31,938	36,674	38,497	42,800	45,530	46,021	45,131	45,030	40,948
Health	44,487	48,390	57,716	71,188	81,260	91,280	101,978	112,880	125,231
Medicare	78,878	84,964	98,102	104,433	113,720	124,562	138,520	154,540	174,617
Income Security	129,332	136,031	147,277	173,189	184,839	194,139	204,830	215,210	223,745
Social Security	219,341	232,542	248,623	268,965	288,632	306,478	323,102	339,637	356,605
(On-budget)	(4,852)	(5,069)	(3,625)	(5,127)	(5,847)	(6,276)	(6,721)	(7,186)	(7,672)
(Off-budget)	(214,489)	(227,473)	(244,998)	(263,837)	(282,785)	(300,202)	(316,381)	(332,450)	(348,933)
Veterans benefits and services	29,428	30,066	29,112	31,483	33,001	33,925	36,562	36,128	35,694
Physical resources	**68,283**	**82,065**	**124,555**	**180,123**	**155,207**	**115,804**	**33,283**	**26,863**	**38,036**
Energy	2,297	3,702	2,358	2,617	3,710	4,817	5,038	3,952	3,385
Natural resources and environment	14,606	16,182	17,067	18,821	19,545	20,048	20,137	19,557	18,917
Commerce and housing credit	18,815	29,211	67,147	119,506	92,788	50,429	–32,844	–37,666	–26,756
(On-budget)	(18,815)	(29,520)	(65,522)	(119,447)	(93,912)	(49,410)	(–33,515)	(–38,145)	(–26,062)
(Off-budget)	(---)	(–310)	(1,626)	(59)	(–1,124)	(1,019)	(671)	(479)	(–694)
Transportation	27,272	27,608	29,485	31,469	32,707	34,654	35,401	35,532	37,111
Community and regional development	5,294	5,362	8,498	7,710	6,457	5,856	5,550	5,488	5,379
Net interest	**151,748**	**169,166**	**184,221**	**197,038**	**206,343**	**212,038**	**215,472**	**213,780**	**211,008**
(On-budget)	(159,164)	(180,561)	(200,212)	(217,202)	(230,076)	(240,087)	(248,241)	(252,106)	(255,647)
(Off-budget)	(–7,416)	(–11,395)	(–15,991)	(–20,164)	(–23,733)	(–28,049)	(–32,769)	(–38,326)	(–44,639)
Other functions	**57,222**	**57,822**	**60,885**	**80,527**	**82,904**	**81,680**	**82,924**	**82,347**	**86,627**
International affairs	10,471	9,573	13,764	16,953	17,814	18,269	18,485	18,481	18,639
General science, space and technology	10,841	12,838	14,444	15,781	17,452	19,087	20,868	22,394	23,918
Agriculture	17,210	16,919	11,958	15,857	15,261	14,166	13,489	12,111	12,639
Administration of justice	9,236	9,474	9,995	12,567	14,486	15,156	15,394	15,828	17,088
General government	9,464	9,017	10,724	11,169	13,183	14,147	14,176	13,422	14,228
Allowances	....	....	....	8,200	4,708	855	512	110	114
Undistributed offsetting receipts	**–36,967**	**–37,212**	**–36,615**	**–39,093**	**–40,780**	**–43,729**	**–41,411**	**–44,758**	**–44,898**
(On-budget)	(–32,585)	(–32,354)	(–31,048)	(–33,266)	(–34,549)	(–36,935)	(–33,965)	(–36,620)	(–36,021)
(Off-budget)	(–4,382)	(–4,858)	(–5,567)	(–5,827)	(–6,231)	(–6,794)	(–7,446)	(–8,138)	(–8,877)
Total, Federal outlays	**1,064,051**	**1,144,069**	**1,251,703**	**1,409,563**	**1,445,902**	**1,454,185**	**1,427,055**	**1,470,276**	**1,540,847**
(On-budget)	(861,360)	(933,158)	(1,026,638)	(1,171,658)	(1,194,205)	(1,187,807)	(1,150,218)	(1,183,811)	(1,246,124)
(Off-budget)	(202,691)	(210,911)	(225,065)	(237,905)	(251,697)	(266,378)	(276,837)	(286.465)	(294,723)
As percentages of outlays									
National defense	27.3	26.5	23.9	21.2	20.4	20.1	20.1	19.6	19.0
Human resources	50.1	49.7	49.5	49.1	51.7	54.8	59.6	61.4	62.1
Physical resources	6.4	7.2	10.0	12.8	10.7	8.0	2.3	1.8	2.5
Net interest	14.3	14.8	14.7	14.0	14.3	14.6	15.1	14.5	13.7
Other functions	5.4	5.1	4.9	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.6	5.6
Undistributed offsetting receipts	–3.5	–3.3	–2.9	–2.8	–2.8	–3.0	–2.9	–3.0	–2.9
Total, Federal outlays	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
(On-budget)	(81.0)	(81.6)	(82.0)	(83.1)	(82.6)	(81.7)	(80.6)	(80.5)	(80.9)
(Off-budget)	(19.0)	(18.4)	(18.0)	(16.9)	(17.4)	(18.3)	(19.4)	(19.5)	(19.1)
As percentages of GNP									
National defense	6.1	5.9	5.5	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.2	3.9	3.8
Human resources	11.2	11.1	11.5	12.3	12.5	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.3
Physical resources	1.4	1.6	2.3	3.2	2.6	1.8	0.5	0.4	0.5
Net interest	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.7
Other functions	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1
Undistributed offsetting receipts	–.8	–.7	–.7	–.7	–.7	–.7	–.6	–.6	–.6
Total, Federal outlays	**22.3**	**22.3**	**23.2**	**25.1**	**24.2**	**22.6**	**20.8**	**20.0**	**19.7**
(On-budget)	(18.0)	(18.2)	(19.0)	(20.9)	(20.0)	(18.5)	(16.7)	(16.1)	(16.0)
(Off-budget)	(4.2)	(4.1)	(4.2)	(4.2)	(4.2)	(4.1)	(4.0)	(3.9)	(3.8)

Source: Budget of the United States Government Fiscal Year 1992. 2,026 pages. Part Seven, P. 36. Part of Table 3.1

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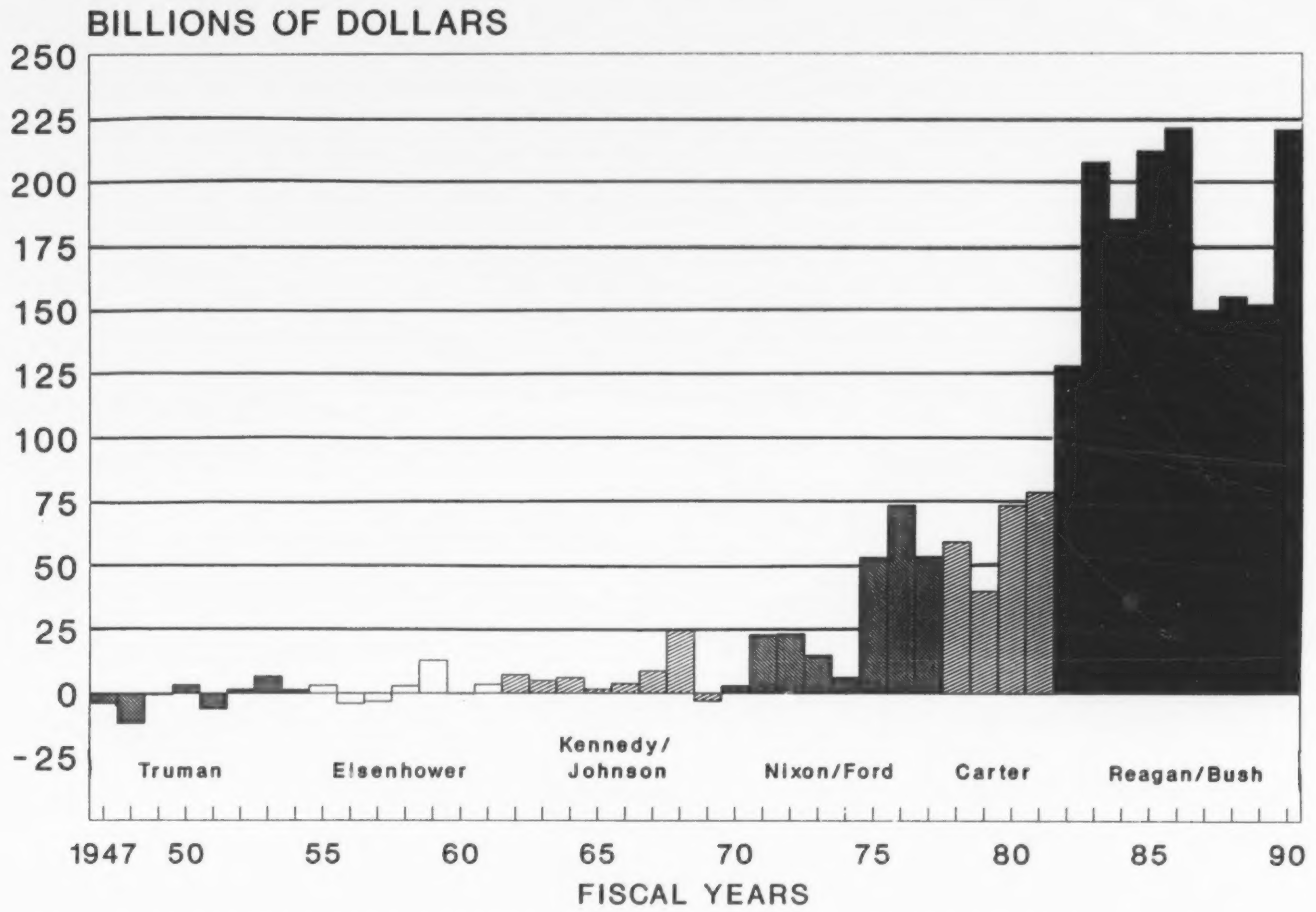
TOTAL BUDGET DEFICIT*

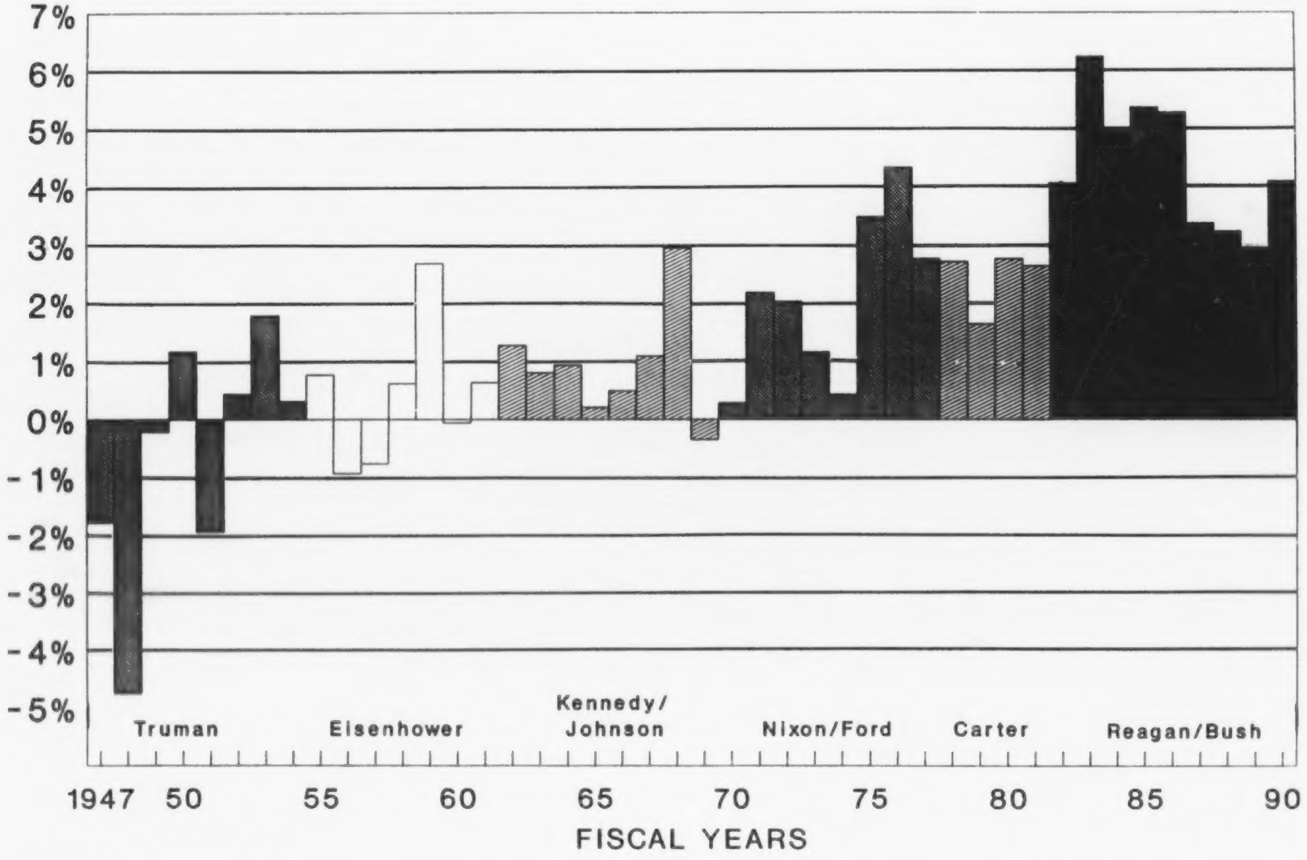


* CONSOLIDATED BUDGET DEFICIT: INCLUDES SOCIAL SECURITY SURPLUS AND DEPOSIT INSURANCE; NEGATIVE VALUES INDICATE SURPLUSES.

Source: U.S. House of Representatives. Committee on the Budget. President Bush's Fiscal Year 1992 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 1991. P. 258.

TOTAL BUDGET DEFICIT*

--As Percent of Gross National Product--



* CONSOLIDATED BUDGET DEFICIT: INCLUDES SOCIAL SECURITY SURPLUS AND DEPOSIT INSURANCE; NEGATIVE VALUES INDCIATE SURPLUS.

Source: U.S. House of Representatives. Committee on the Budget. President Bush's Fiscal Year 1992 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 1991. P. 259.

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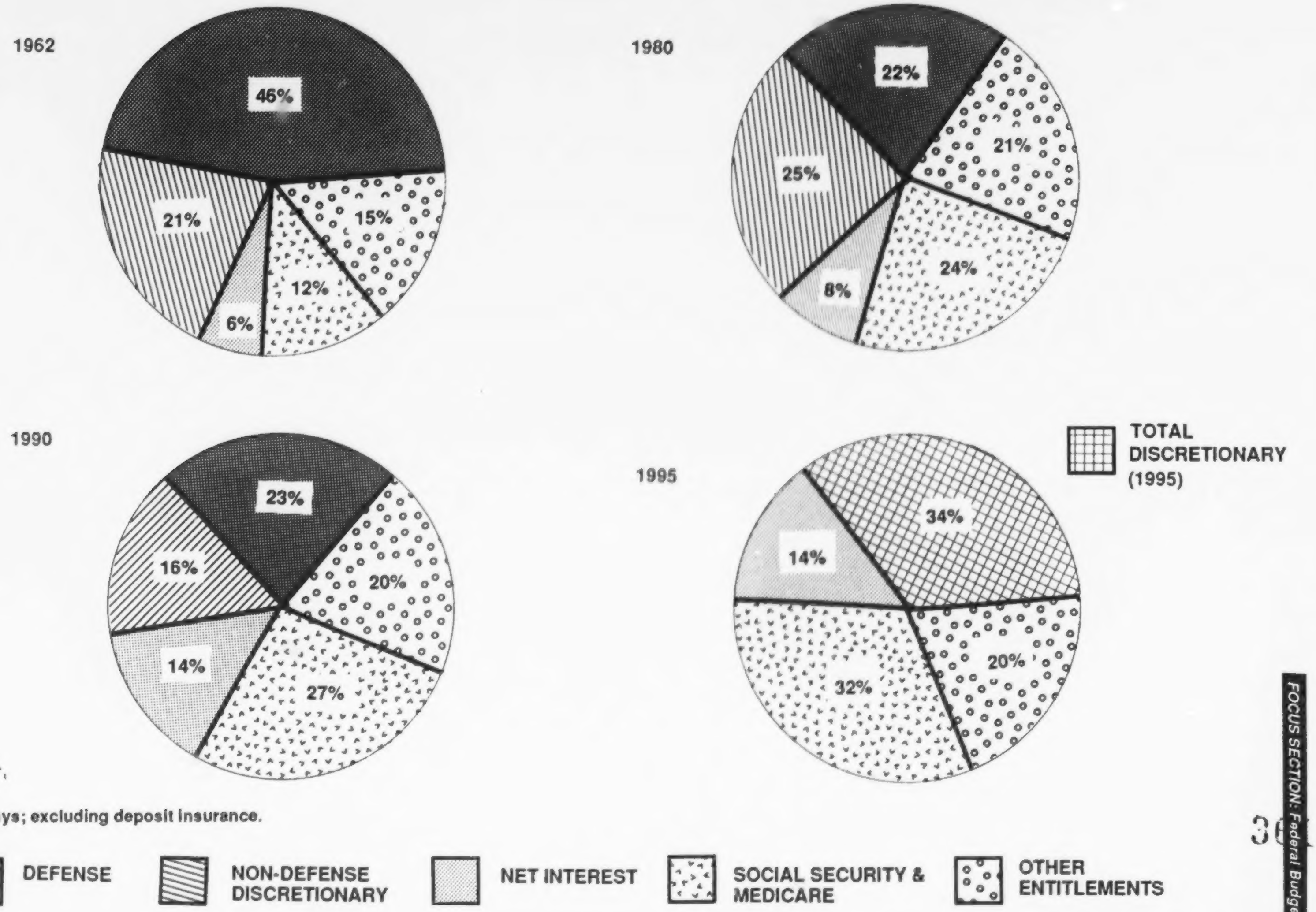
CHANGING BUDGET PRIORITIES, 1962-1995

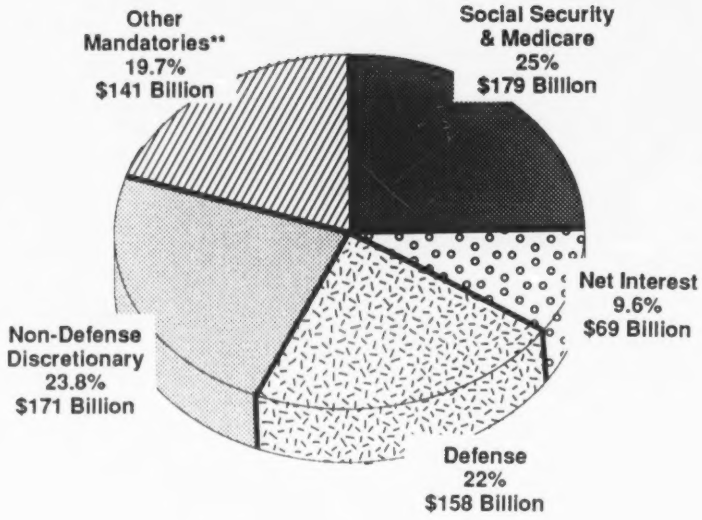


Note: Gross outlays; excluding deposit insurance.

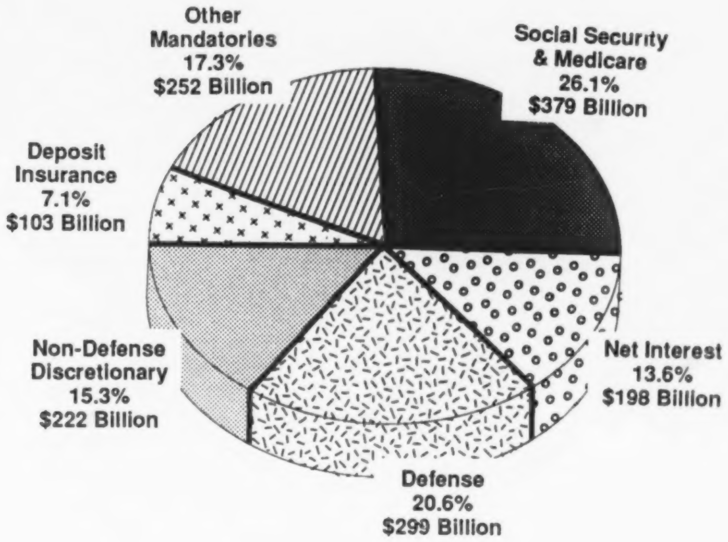
Source: U.S. House of Representatives. Committee on the Budget. President Bush's Fiscal Year 1992 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 1991. P. 268.

CHANGING BUDGET PRIORITIES IN THE 1980s

-- Major Spending Categories As A Percent Of Total Spending* --



FY 1981



FY 1991

* Gross outlays, excluding offsetting receipts; charts reflect CBO revised categorization.
** This category includes Deposit Insurance in FY1981, nearly $1.4 billion in net receipts.

Source: U.S. House of Representatives. Committee on the Budget. President Bush's Fiscal Year 1992 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 1991. P. 269.

1990 Census Data

U.S. POPULATION UP TWO-THIRDS IN 40 YEARS

-- Population Changes Since 1950 and 1980 --

The 1990 census showed that the resident U.S. population grew 64.4 percent since the 1950 census. In 1950, the Nation had 151,325,798 residents; in 1990, the count was 248,709,873 residents. In addition, the 1990 census counted another 922,819 military and civilian Federal employees and their dependents overseas.

Between 1950 and 1990, Nevada recorded the greatest percentage growth in the 40-year period (650.8 percent). It also had the greatest increase between 1980-90 (50.4 percent). In numerical growth, California led the Nation with 6,091,459 persons in the 1980-90 period and with 19,173,798 persons in the 1950-90 period.

In general, gains or losses by States in the 1980-90 period are a continuation of trends in the 1950-90 period.

In the 40-year period, 19 States exceeded the United States' rate of population growth (64.4 percent) and 31 States and the District of Columbia fell below the four-decade rate of growth.

In the last decade, 19 States also exceeded the U.S. resident population growth rate of 9.8 percent and 31 States and the District of Columbia trailed. Among the States that have exceeded the national growth rate between 1950-90, only Idaho and Oregon fell below the national average in the last decade.

Among States that have had a 40-year growth rate below the national average, only North Carolina and Vermont exceeded the United States average growth percentage during the last decade.

	'50 census	'80 census	'90 census[1]	Percentage change 1950-90	Percentage change 1980-1990
United States	151,325,798	226,504,825	248,709,873	+ 64.35%	+ 9.80%
Alabama	3,061,743	3,890,061	4,040,587	+ 31.97%	+ 3.87%
Alaska	128,643	400,481	550,043	+327.57%	+37.35%
Arizona	749,587	2,717,866	3,665,228	+388.97%	+34.86%
Arkansas	1,909,511	2,285,513	2,350,725	+ 23.11%	+ 2.85%
California	10,586,223	23,668,562	29,760,021	+181.12%	+25.74%
Colorado	1,325,089	2,888,834	3,294,394	+148.62%	+14.04%
Connecticut	2,007,280	3,107,576	3,287,116	+ 63.76%	+ 5.78%
Delaware	318,085	595,225	666,168	+109.43%	+11.92%
District of Columbia	802,178	637,651	606,900	− 24.34%	− 4.82%
Florida	2,771,305	9,739,992	12,937,926	+366.85%	+32.83%
Georgia	3,444,578	5,464,265	6,478,216	+ 88.07%	+18.56%
Hawaii	499,794	965,000	1,108,229	+121.74%	+14.84%
Idaho	588,637	943,935	1,006,749	+ 71.03%	+ 6.65%
Illinois	8,712,176	11,418,461	11,430,602	+ 31.20%	+ 0.11%
Indiana	3,934,224	5,490,179	5,544,159	+ 40.92%	+ 0.98%
Iowa	2,621,073	2,913,387	2,776,755	+ 5.94%	− 4.69%
Kansas	1,905,299	2,363,208	2,477,574	+ 30.04%	+ 4.84%
Kentucky	2,944,806	3,661,433	3,685,296	+ 25.15%	+ 0.65%
Louisiana	2,683,516	4,203,972	4,219,973	+ 57.26%	+ 0.38%
Maine	913,774	1,124,660	1,227,928	+ 34.38%	+ 9.18%
Maryland	2,343,001	4,216,446	4,781,468	+104.07%	+13.40%
Massachusetts	4,690,514	5,737,037	6,016,425	+ 28.27%	+ 4.87%
Michigan	6,371,766	9,258,344	9,295,297	+ 45.88%	+ 0.40%
Minnesota	2,982,483	4,077,148	4,375,099	+ 46.69%	+ 7.31%
Mississippi	2,178,914	2,520,638	2,573,216	+ 18.10%	+ 2.09%
Missouri	3,954,653	4,917,444	5,117,073	+ 29.39%	+ 4.06%
Montana	591,024	786,690	799,065	+ 35.20%	+ 1.57%
Nebraska	1,325,510	1,570,006	1,578,385	+ 19.08%	+ 0.53%
Nevada	160,083	799,184	1,201,833	+650.76%	+50.38%
New Hampshire	533,242	920,610	1,109,252	+108.02%	+20.49%
New Jersey	4,835,329	7,364,158	7,730,188	+ 59.87%	+ 4.97%
New Mexico	681,187	1,299,968	1,515,069	+122.42%	+16.55%
New York	14,830,192	17,557,288	17,990,455	+ 21.31%	+ 2.47%
North Carolina	4,061,929	5,874,429	6,628,637	+ 63.19%	+12.84%
North Dakota	619,636	652,695	638,800	+ 3.09%	− 2.13%
Ohio	7,946,627	10,797,419	10,847,115	+ 36.50%	+ 0.46%
Oklahoma	2,233,351	3,025,266	3,145,585	+ 40.85%	+ 3.98%
Oregon	1,521,341	2,632,663	2,842,321	+ 86.83%	+ 7.96%
Pennsylvania	10,498,012	11,866,728	11,881,643	+ 13.18%	+ 0.13%
Rhode Island	791,896	947,154	1,003,464	+ 26.72%	+ 5.95%
South Carolina	2,117,027	3,119,208	3,486,703	+ 64.70%	+11.78%
South Dakota	652,740	690,178	696,004	+ 6.63%	+ 0.84%
Tennessee	3,291,718	4,590,750	4,877,185	+ 48.17%	+ 6.24%
Texas	7,711,194	14,228,383	16,986,510	+120.28%	+19.38%
Utah	688,862	1,461,037	1,722,850	+150.10%	+17.92%
Vermont	377,747	511,456	562,758	+ 48.98%	+10.03%
Virginia	3,318,680	5,346,279	6,187,358	+ 86.44%	+15.73%
Washington	2,378,963	4,130,163	4,866,692	+104.57%	+17.83%
West Virginia	2,005,552	1,949,644	1,793,477	− 10.57%	− 8.01%
Wisconsin	3,434,575	4,705,335	4,891,769	+ 42.43%	+ 3.96%
Wyoming	290,529	470,816	453,588	+ 56.12%	− 3.66%

[1] The 1990 population counts set forth herein are subject to possible correction for undercount or overcount. The U.S. Department of Commerce is considering whether to correct these counts and will publish corrected counts, if any, not later than July 15, 1991.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You, February 1991. P. 6.

THE U.S. HAS 195 CITIES WITH POPULATION OVER 100,000; HERE ARE THE 165 LARGEST

1990 Rank	City and State	1990 Population
1	New York, NY	7,322,564
2	Los Angeles, CA	3,485,398
3	Chicago, IL	2,783,726
4	Houston, TX	1,630,553
5	Philadelphia, PA	1,585,577
6	San Diego, CA	1,110,549
7	Detroit, MI	1,027,974
8	Dallas, TX	1,006,877
9	Phoenix, AZ	983,403
10	San Antonio, TX	935,933
11	San Jose, CA	782,248
12	Indianapolis, IN	741,952*
13	Baltimore, MD	736,014
14	San Francisco, CA	723,959
15	Jacksonville, FL	672,971*
16	Columbus, OH	632,910
17	Milwaukee, WI	628,088
18	Memphis, TN	610,337
19	Washington, DC	606,900
20	Boston, MA	574,283
21	Seattle, WA	516,259
22	El Paso, TX	515,342
23	Nashville-Davidson,	510,784*
24	Cleveland, OH	505,616
25	New Orleans, LA	496,938
26	Denver, CO	467,610
27	Austin, TX	465,622
28	Fort Worth, TX	447,619
29	Oklahoma City, OK	444,719
30	Portland, OR	437,319
31	Kansas City, MO	435,146
32	Long Beach, CA	429,433
33	Tucson, AZ	405,390
34	St. Louis, MO	396,685
35	Charlotte, NC	395,934
36	Atlanta, GA	394,017
37	Virginia Beach, VA	393,069
38	Albuquerque, NM	384,736
39	Oakland, CA	372,242
40	Pittsburgh, PA	369,879
41	Sacramento, CA	369,365
42	Minneapolis, MN	368,383
43	Tulsa, OK	367,302
44	Honolulu CDP, HI	365,272
45	Cincinnati, OH	364,040
46	Miami, FL	358,548
47	Fresno, CA	354,202
48	Omaha, NE	335,795
49	Toledo, OH	332,943
50	Buffalo, NY	328,123
51	Wichita, KS	304,011
52	Santa Ana, CA	293,742
53	Mesa, AZ	288,091
54	Colorado Springs, CO	281,140
55	Tampa, FL	280,015
56	Newark, NJ	275,221
57	St. Paul, MN	272,235
58	Louisville, KY	269,063
59	Anaheim, CA	266,406
60	Birmingham, AL	265,968
61	Arlington, TX	261,721
62	Norfolk, VA	261,229
63	Las Vegas, NV	258,295
64	Corpus Christi, TX	257,453
65	St. Petersburg, FL	238,629
66	Rochester, NY	231,636
67	Jersey City, NJ	228,537
68	Riverside, CA	226,505
69	Anchorage, AK	226,338
70	Lexington-Fayette, KY	225,366
71	Akron, OH	223,019
72	Aurora, CO	222,103
73	Baton Rouge, LA	219,531
74	Stockton, CA	210,943
75	Raleigh, NC	207,951
76	Richmond, VA	203,056
77	Shreveport, LA	198,525
78	Jackson, MS	196,637
79	Mobile, AL	196,278
80	Des Moines, IA	193,187
81	Lincoln, NE	191,972
82	Madison, WI	191,262
83	Grand Rapids, MI	189,126
84	Yonkers, NY	188,082
85	Hialeah, FL	188,004
86	Montgomery, AL	187,106
87	Lubbock, TX	186,206
88	Greensboro, NC	183,521
89	Dayton, OH	182,044
90	Huntington Beach, CA	181,519
91	Garland, TX	180,650
92	Glendale, CA	180,038
93	Columbus, GA	179,278*
94	Spokane, WA	177,196
95	Tacoma, WA	176,664
96	Little Rock, AR	175,795
97	Bakersfield, CA	174,820
98	Fremont, CA	173,339
99	Fort Wayne, IN	173,072
100	Newport News, VA	170,045
101	Worcester, MA	169,759
102	Knoxville, TN	165,121
103	Modesto, CA	164,730
104	Orlando, FL	164,693
105	San Bernardino, CA	164,164
106	Syracuse, NY	163,860
107	Providence, RI	160,728
108	Salt Lake City, UT	159,936
109	Huntsville, AL	159,789
110	Amarillo, TX	157,615
111	Springfield, MA	156,983
112	Irving, TX	155,037
113	Chattanooga, TN	152,466
114	Chesapeake, VA	151,976
115	Kansas City, KS	149,767
116	Fort Lauderdale, FL	149,377
117	Glendale, AR	148,134
118	Warren, MI	144,864
119	Winston-Salem, NC	143,485
120	Garden Grove, CA	143,050
121	Oxnard, CA	142,216
122	Tempe, AZ	141,865
123	Bridgeport, CT	141,686
124	Paterson, NJ	140,891
125	Flint, MI	140,761
126	Springfield, MO	140,494
127	Hartford, CT	139,739
128	Rockford, IL	139,426
129	Savannah, GA	137,560
130	Durham, NC	136,611
131	Chula Vista, CA	135,163
132	Reno, NV	133,850
133	Hampton, VA	133,793
134	Ontario, CA	133,179
135	Torrance, CA	133,107
136	Pomona, CA	131,723
137	Pasadena, CA	131,591
138	New Haven, CT	130,474
139	Scottsdale, AZ	130,069
140	Plano, TX	128,713
141	Oceanside, CA	128,398
142	Lansing, MI	127,321
143	Lakewood, CO	126,481
144	Evansville, IN	126,272
145	Boise, ID	125,738
146	Tallahassee, FL	124,773
147	Laredo, TX	122,899
148	Hollywood, FL	121,697
149	Topeka, KS	119,883
150	Pasadena, TX	119,363
151	Moreno Valley, CA	118,779
152	Sterling Heights, MI	117,810
153	Sunnyvale, CA	117,229
154	Gary, IN	116,646
155	Beaumont, TX	114,323
156	Fullerton, CA	114,144
157	Peoria, IL	113,504
158	Santa Rosa, CA	113,313
159	Eugene, OR	112,669
160	Independence, MO	112,301
161	Overland Park, KS	111,790
162	Hayward, CA	111,498
163	Concord, CA	111,348
164	Alexandria, VA	111,183
165	Orange, CA	110,658

* Consolidated city

The population counts released are subject to possible correction for undercount or overcount. The United States Department of Commerce is considering whether to correct these counts and will publish corrected counts, if any, not later than July 15, 1991.

Source: Bureau of the Census Release CB91-24, February 1991.

A NEW PHENOMENON:
The Growth of Some Suburbs Into Suburban Cities. With It, An Increased Need For Regional Approaches To Issues Like Transportation, Water, Parks, and Waste Disposal

Listed below are cities of 100,000* in 1990 that had the largest percentage increases in population from 1980 to 1990. Figures are from the Bureau of the Census as printed in The New York Times, February 23, 1991. Page 1.

*** Roberto Suro, author of The New York Times article which accompanied the figures pointed out that "a population of 100,000 [is] an unofficial but convenient threshold used by statisticians to mark when a town becomes a city."**

City	Suburb of...	1980	1990	Change
Moreno Valley, CA*	Riverside	28,309	118,779	319.6%
Mesa, AZ	Phoenix	152,404	288,091	89.0
Rancho Cucamonga, CA	Los Angeles	55,250	101,409	83.5
Plano, TX	Dallas	72,331	128,713	77.9
Irvine, CA	Los Angeles	62,134	110,330	77.6
Escondido, CA	San Diego	64,355	108,635	68.8
Oceanside, CA	Los Angeles	76,698	128,398	67.4
Santa Clarita, CA	Los Angeles	66,730	110,642	65.8
Bakersfield, CA	--	105,611	174,820	65.5
Arlington, TX	Dallas	160,113	261,721	63.5
Fresno, CA	--	217,491	354,202	62.9
Chula Vista, CA	San Diego	83,927	135,163	61.0
Las Vegas, NV	--	164,674	258,295	56.9
Modesto, CA	--	106,963	164,730	54.0
Tallahassee, FL	--	81,548	124,773	53.0
Glendale, AZ	Phoenix	97,172	148,134	52.4
Mesquite, TX	Dallas	67,053	101,484	51.3
Ontario, CA	Los Angeles	88,820	133,179	49.9
Virginia Beach, VA	Norfolk	262,199	393,069	49.9
Scottsdale, AZ	Phoenix	88,622	130,069	46.5
Santa Ana, CA	Los Angeles	204,023	292,742	44.0
Stockton, CA	--	148,283	210,943	42.3
Pomona, CA	Los Angeles	92,742	131,723	42.0
Irving, TX	Dallas	109,943	155,037	41.0
Aurora, CO	Denver	158,588	222,103	40.1
Raleigh, NC	--	150,255	207,951	38.4
San Bernardino, CA	--	118,794	164,164	38.2
Santa Rosa, CA	San Francisco	82,658	113,313	37.1
Overland Park, KS	Kansas City	81,784	111,790	36.7
Vellejo, CA	San Francisco	80,303	109,199	36.0
Thousand Oaks, CA	Los Angeles	77,072	104,352	35.4
Salinas, CA	--	80,479	108,777	35.2
Durham, NC	--	101,149	136,611	35.1
Austin, TX	--	345,890	465,622	34.6
Laredo, TX	--	91,449	122,899	34.4
Sacramento, CA	--	275,741	369,365	34.0
El Monte, CA	Los Angeles	79,494	106,209	33.6
Reno, NV	--	100,756	133,850	32.8
Riverside, CA	--	170,591	226,505	32.8
Chesapeake, VA	Norfolk	114,486	151,967	32.7
Tempe, AZ	Phoenix	106,919	141,865	32.7
Oxnard, CA	Los Angeles	108,195	142,216	31.4
Fremont, CA	San Jose/Oakland	131,945	173,339	31.4
Colorado Springs, CO	--	215,105	281,140	30.7
Garland, TX	Dallas	138,857	180,650	30.1

Eight other cities' populations went over 100,000 in the census: Simi Valley, Orange, and Inglewood, CA (all suburbs of Los Angeles), Hayward, CA (a suburb of Oakland), Sioux Falls, SD, Salem, OR, Lowell, MA, and Abilene, TX.

* Unincorporated in 1980.

HALF OF THE U.S LIVES IN OUR 39 METROPOLITAN AREAS OF ONE MILLION OR MORE

Final 1990 census figures show that the nation has 39 metropolitan areas of at least one million population, including four that have reached that size since 1980.

The 39 areas have 124.8 million people, or 50.2 percent of the national total.

The 1950 census showed only 14 metropolitan areas of this size, and their combined population of about 45 million amounted to less than 30 percent (29.7 percent) of the national total.

Metro area	**1980 pop.**	**1990 pop.**	**Pct. chg.**
New York	17,539,532	18,087,251	+3.1
Los Angeles	11,497,549	14,531,529	+26.4
Chicago	7,937,290	8,065,633	+1.6
San Francisco	5,367,900	6,253,311	+16.5
Philadelphia	5,680,509	5,899,345	+3.9
Detroit	4,752,764	4,665,236	-1.8
Boston	3,971,792	4,171,643	+5.0
Washington	3,250,921	3,923,574	+20.7
Dallas	2,930,568	3,885,415	+32.6
Houston	3,099,942	3,711,043	+19.7
Miami	2,643,766	3,192,582	+20.8
Atlanta	2,138,136	2,833,511	+32.5
Cleveland	2,834,062	2,759,823	-2.6
Seattle	2,093,285	2,559,164	+22.3
San Diego	1,861,846	2,498,016	+34.2
Minneapolis	2,137,133	2,464,124	+15.3
St. Louis	2,376,968	2,444,099	+2.8
Baltimore	2,199,497	2,382,172	+8.3
Pittsburgh	2,423,311	2,242,798	-7.4
Phoenix	1,509,175	2,122,101	+40.6
Tampa, Fla.	1,613,600	2,067,959	+28.2
Denver	1,618,461	1,848,319	+14.2
Cincinnati	1,660,257	1,744,124	+5.1
Milwaukee	1,570,152	1,607,183	+2.4
Kansas City, Mo.	1,433,464	1,566,280	+9.3
Sacramento, Calif.	1,099,814	1,481,102	+34.7
Portland, Ore.	1,297,977	1,477,895	+13.9
Norfolk, Va.	1,160,311	1,396,107	+20.3
Columbus, Ohio	1,243,827	1,377,419	+10.7
San Antonio	1,072,125	1,302,099	+21.5
Indianapolis	1,166,575	1,249,822	+7.1
New Orleans	1,256,668	1,238,816	-1.4
Buffalo	1,242,826	1,189,288	-4.3
Charlotte, N.C.	971,447	1,162,093	+19.6
Providence	1,083,139	1,141,510	+5.4
Hartford	1,013,508	1,085,837	+7.1
Orlando, Fla.	699,904	1,072,748	+53.3
Salt Lake City	910,222	1,072,227	+17.8
Rochester, N.Y.	971,230	1,002,410	+3.2

SOURCE: Associated Press

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB91-66, February 21, 1991.

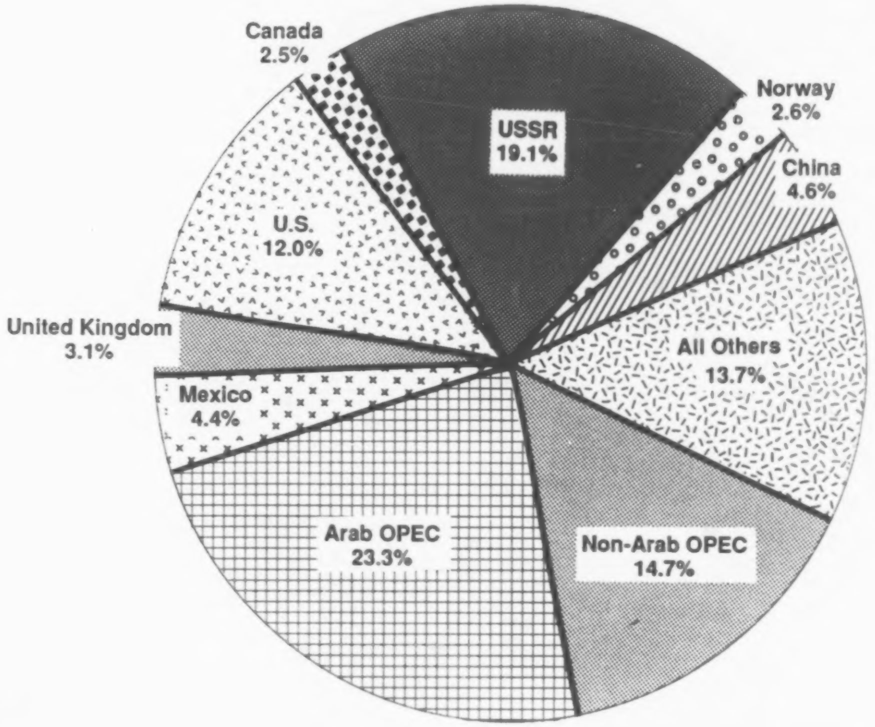
RANK ORDER LISTING OF THE WORLD'S 73 LARGEST URBAN AGGLOMERATIONS

The concept of agglomeration defines the population contained within the contours of contiguous territory inhabited at urban levels of residential density without regard to administrative boundaries.

		Population (millions)	
		1990	2000
1.	**Mexico City**	20.2	25.6
2.	**Tokyo**	18.1	19.0
3.	**Sao Paulo**	17.4	22.1
4.	**New York**	16.2	16.8
5.	**Shanghai**	13.4	17.0
6.	**Los Angeles**	11.9	13.9
7.	**Calcutta**	11.8	15.7
8.	**Buenos Aires**	11.5	12.9
9.	**Bombay**	11.2	15.4
10.	**Seoul**	11.0	12.7
11.	**Beijing**	10.8	14.0
12.	**Rio De Janeiro**	10.7	12.5
13.	**Tianjin**	9.4	12.7
14.	**Jakarta**	9.3	13.7
15.	**Cairo**	9.0	11.8
16.	**Delhi**	8.8	13.2
17.	**Moscow**	8.8	9.0
18.	**Metro Manila**	8.5	11.8
19.	**Osaka**	8.5	8.6
20.	**Paris**	8.5	8.6
21.	**Karachi**	7.7	11.7
22.	**Lagos**	7.7	12.9
23.	**London**	7.4	7.5
24.	**Bangkok**	7.2	10.3
25.	**Chicago**	7.0	7.3
26.	**Teheran**	6.8	8.5
27.	**Istanbul**	6.7	9.5
28.	**Dacca**	6.6	12.2
29.	**Lima**	6.2	8.2
30.	**Madras**	5.7	5.8
31.	**Hong Kong**	5.4	6.1
32.	**Milan**	5.3	5.4
33.	**Madrid**	5.2	5.9
34.	**Leningrad**	5.1	5.4
35.	**Bangalore**	5.0	8.2
36.	**Bogota**	4.9	6.4
37.	**Shenyang**	4.8	6.3
38.	**Santiago, Chile**	4.7	5.6
39.	**Philadelphia**	4.3	4.5
40.	**Caracas**	4.1	5.2
41.	**Lahore**	4.1	6.0
42.	**Baghdad**	4.0	5.1
43.	**Pusan**	3.9	4.3
44.	**Wuhan**	3.9	5.3
45.	**Alexandria**	3.7	5.1
46.	**Detroit**	3.7	3.7
47.	**Guangzhou**	3.7	4.8
48.	**San Francisco**	3.7	4.1
49.	**Ahmedabad**	3.6	5.3
50.	**Belo Horizonte**	3.6	4.7
51.	**Naples**	3.6	3.6
52.	**Hyderabad, India**	3.5	5.0
53.	**Kinshasha**	3.5	5.5
54.	**Toronto**	3.5	3.9
55.	**Athens**	3.4	3.8
56.	**Barcelona**	3.4	3.7
57.	**Dallas**	3.4	4.4
58.	**Katowice**	3.4	3.7
59.	**Sydney**	3.4	3.7
60.	**Yangon, Myanmar**	3.3	4.7
61.	**Casablanca**	3.2	4.6
62.	**Chongqing**	3.2	4.2
63.	**Guadalajara**	3.2	4.1
64.	**Ho Chi Minh**	3.2	4.1
65.	**Porto Alegra**	3.1	4.0
66,	**Rome**	3.1	3.1
67.	**Algiers**	3.0	4.5
68.	**Chengdu**	3.0	4.1
69.	**Harbin**	3.0	3.9
70.	**Houston**	3.0	3.6
71.	**Monterrey, Mexico**	3.0	3.9
72.	**Montreal**	3.0	3.1
73.	**Taipei**	3.0	4.2

World Eagle table. Data from United Nations Urban Agglomeration Chart 1990.

ESTIMATES FOR 1990 PLACE OPEC (38.0%), USSR (19.1%), AND THE U.S. (12.0%) AS WORLD'S LEADING PRODUCERS OF OIL



World Shares Produced by the 13 OPEC Member Nations

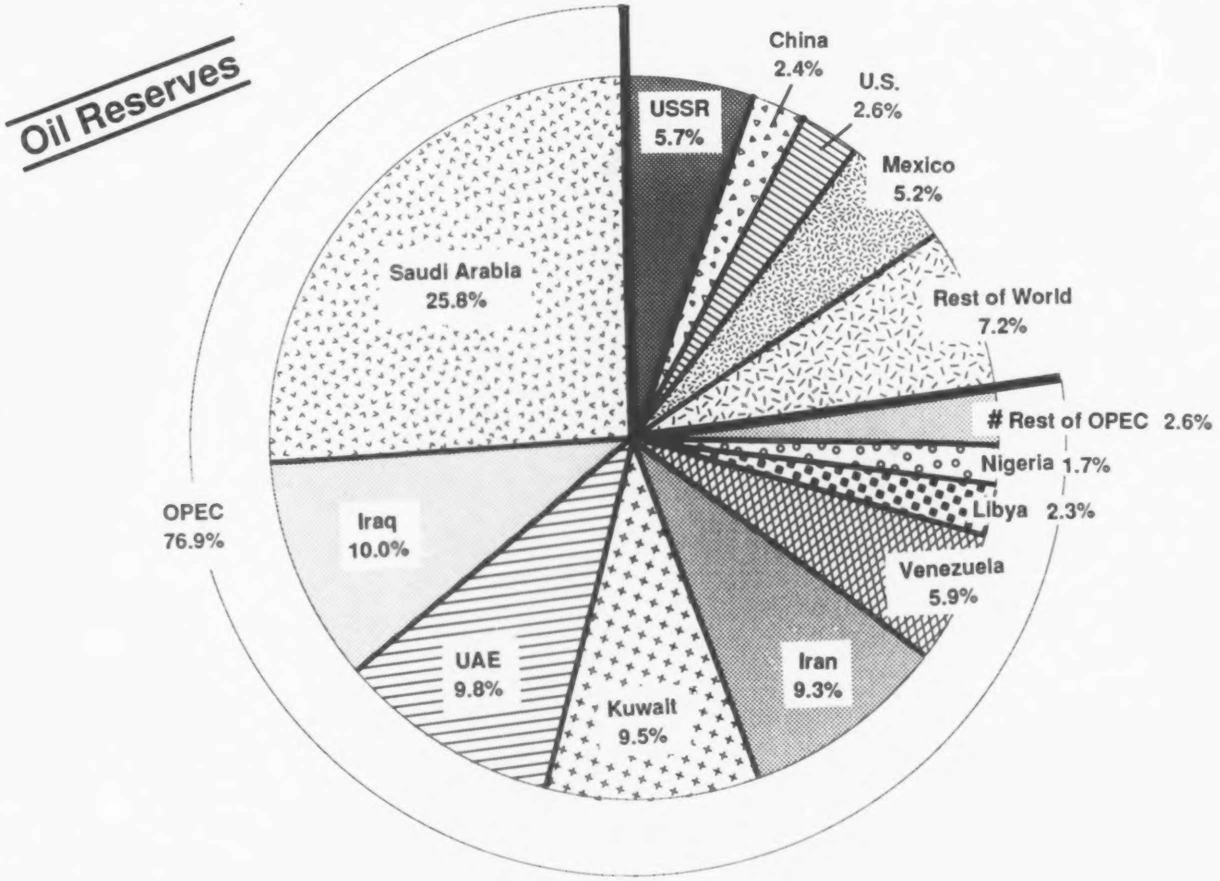
(Percent of World Production)

Arab OPEC	
Algeria	1.3%
Iraq	3.5%
Kuwait	1.8%
Libya	2.3%
Qatar	0.6%
Saudi Arabia	10.3%
UAE	3.5%
TOTAL	23.3%

Non-Arab OPEC	
Ecuador	0.5%
Gabon	0.4%
Indonesia	2.1%
Iran	5.2%
Nigeria	3.0%
Venezuela	3.5%
TOTAL	14.7%

World Eagle chart and table. Data from "The Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal, 1990 Year-end issue.

JANUARY 1, 1991 ESTIMATES SAY OPEC HAS 76.9% OF WORLD'S PROVED RESERVES OF OIL



January 1, 1991 Total Estimated Proved Reserves of Oil: 999,113,472 (1,000 bbl)

		(1,000 bbl)	
*1.	Saudi Arabia	257,504,000	25.8%
*2.	Iraq	100,000,000	10.0%
*3.	UAE	98,100,000	9.8%
*4.	Kuwait	94,525,000	9.5%
*5.	Iran	92,850,000	9.3%
*6.	Venezuela	59,040,000	5.9%
7.	USSR	57,000,000	5.7%
8.	Mexico	51,983,000	5.2
9.	U.S.	26,177,000	2.6%
10.	China	24,000,000	2.4%
*11.	Libya	22,800,000	2.3%
*12.	Nigeria	17,100,000	1.7%

		(1,000 bbl)	
*14.	Indonesia	11,050,000	1.1%
*15.	Algeria	9,200,000	0.9%
16.	India	7,997,100	0.8%
17.	Norway	7,609,412	0.8%
18.	Canada	5,782,949	0.6%
19.	Divided (Neutral) Zone	5,000,000	0.5%
20.	Egypt	4,500,000	0.5%
*21.	Qatar	4,500,000	0.4%
22.	Oman	4,300,000	0.4%
23.	Yemen	4,000,000	0.4%
24.	United Kingdom	3,825,000	0.4%

*** These eleven are members of OPEC. Ecuador and Gabon are also.**

# Indonesia, Algeria, Qatar, Ecuador, Gabon

World Eagle chart and table. Data from "The Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal, 1990 Year-end issue.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

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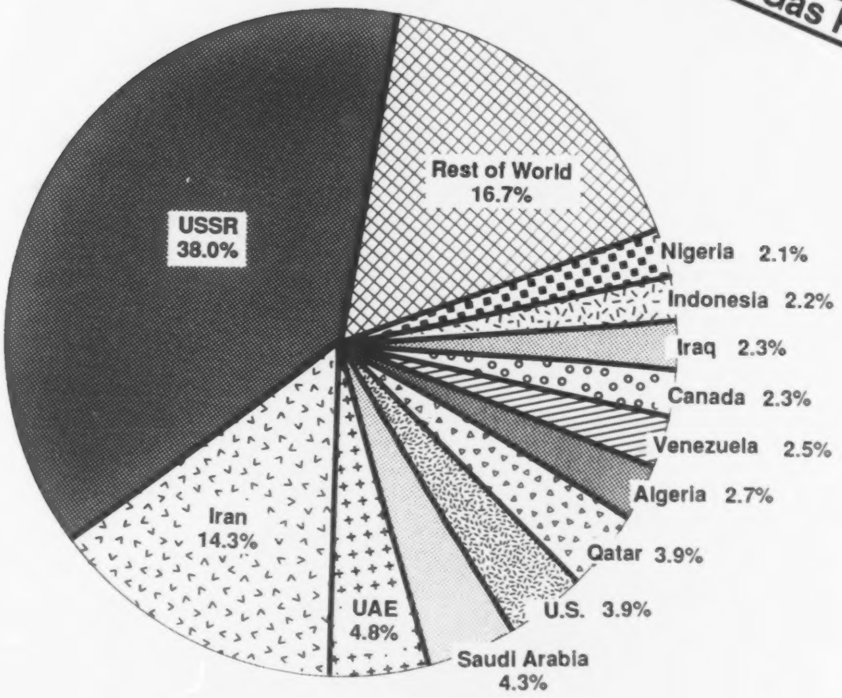
USSR AND IRAN HAVE OVER HALF THE WORLD'S PROVED RESERVES OF NATURAL GAS

Natural Gas Reserves



WORLD: 4,208,315 (10^9 cu.ft.)

		(10^9 cu. ft.)	
1.	USSR	1,600,000	38.8%
2.	Iran	600,350	14.3%
3.	UAE	200,400	4.8%
4.	Saudi Arabia	180,355	4.3%
5.	U.S.	166,208	3.9%
6.	Qatar	163,200	3.9%
7.	Algeria	114,700	2.7%
8.	Venezuela	105,688	2.5%
9.	Canada	97,589	2.3%
10.	Iraq	95,000	2.3%
11.	Nigeria	87,400	2.1%
12.	Norway	60,674	1.4%
13.	Indonesia	91,450	2.2%
14.	Mexico	72,744	1.7%
15.	Netherlands	60,900	1.4%
16.	Malaysia	56,900	1.4%
17.	Kuwait	48,600	1.2%
18.	Libya	43,000	1.0%
19.	China	35,300	0.8%
20.	Argentina	27,000	0.6%
21.	India	25,049	0.6%
22.	United Kingdom	19,775	0.5%
23.	Pakistan	19,449	0.5%
24.	Australia	15,433	0.4%

World Eagle chart and table. Data from "The Worldwide Report," by Oil and Gas Journal, 1990 Year-end issue.

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THE COMMON CAUSE CAMPAIGN AGAINST PACS

The material on the next two pages has been excepted from a Common Cause mailing received by one of our editors February 13, 1991.

Common Cause says it "is a nonprofit, nonpartisan citizens' lobbying organization supported by the dues and contributions of more than 270,000 members nationwide." Its address is 2030 M Street, NW. Washington DC 20036.

The mailing's cover letter (below) was signed by Common Cause's Chairman, Archibald Cox, who, in 1973, had been Director, Office Watergate Special Prosecution Force, Washington.

Dear Friend,

The years since the Watergate scandal have seen a skyrocketing growth in contributions from political action committees -- the PACs. In 1974, PAC contributions to congressional candidates totaled $12 million; when all the campaign finance reports are in for the 1990 election, PACs are expected to have given $150 million.

There is no question in my mind that the dependence by our elected representatives in Washington upon the flow of special-interest influence money is corrupting our governmental process. It has resulted in a system where lawmakers are not beholden to the voters who elected them, but to the special interests who finance their elections. And, because special-interest contributions go overwhelmingly to incumbents, it has resulted in a Congress that is virtually challenger-proof.

Most scandals involve broken laws. In the case of the congressional campaign financing system, however, the laws themselves are the scanal -- and they must be changed.

Right now we have a real opportunity to bring about fundamental change. Public outrage at the present campaign financing system -- abuses dramatically illustrated by the savings and loan scandal -- is high. Support for reform is building.

We must move immediately to let Members of Congress know that the American people want the new Congress to act now to restore our government to one of, by and for the people -- not of, by and for the special interests.

Please read the enclosed information carefully. And then join me and the 270,00 concerned members of Common Cause in our PEOPLE vs. PACs campaign.

You can help make certain that Congress takes effective action rather than sweeping the campaign finance scandal under the rug.

We can win this fight. Please give us your help

Sincerely,

Archibald Cox
Chairman

continued

COMMON CAUSE AGAINST PACS continued

The Washington Post has said that the present congressional campaign financing system "is fundamentally corrupt. Every citizen knows that. So does every legislator."

The Charleston Gazette (West Virginia) warns, "Disguised bribery has grown like a cancer in Congress, corrupting the lawmaking process, making 'bag men' of most senators and representatives."

And the Dallas Times Herald puts it this way: "The power of PAC money threatens increasingly to turn members of Congress into legalized political prostitutes."

In an editorial written just before Election Day, The Washington Post said:

> The greatest undone deed of the last Congress was the one that would have struck closest to home: campaign finance reform....No task is more important; the present system is to the long-run advantage of neither party. In both House and Senate it produces... a Congress dangerously close to being bought.

Richard Bolling, who served in Congress for more than 30 years as one of its most respected Members, has said of campaign financing: "It's the one issue that has to be solved it we're going to have a democratic process in this country 10 years from now."

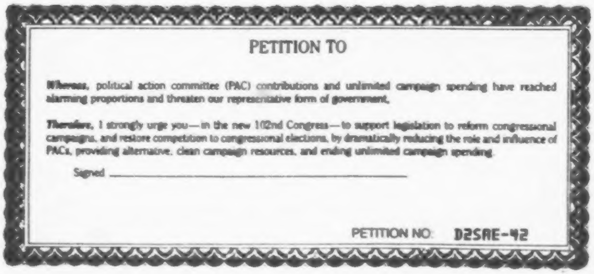
Special-interest PAC "investments" in incumbents are rigging our elections and corrupting our Congress.

. During the 1990 elections, PACs gave nine times more money to incumbent Members of Congress than they gave to challengers!

. In the 1990 elections more than 90 percent of House incumbents seeking reelection were in financially uncompetitive races -- their opponents lacked sufficient resources to mount a viable campaign.

. In a year of exceptional public anger at Washington, 96 percent of congressional incumbents won reelection.

The mailing urged that the reader take two immediate steps: sign and return the two Senatorial Petitions (example below) and "join the Common Cause PEOPLE AGAINST PAC$ campaign by making as generous a contribution as you can to help us fight for campaign finance reform."



PETITION TO

Whereas, political action committee (PAC) contributions and unlimited campaign spending have reached alarming proportions and threaten our representative form of government,

Therefore, I strongly urge you—in the new 102nd Congress—to support legislation to reform congressional campaigns, and restore competition to congressional elections, by dramatically reducing the role and influence of PACs, providing alternative, clean campaign resources, and ending unlimited campaign spending.

Signed ______________________________

PETITION NO: D2SRE-42

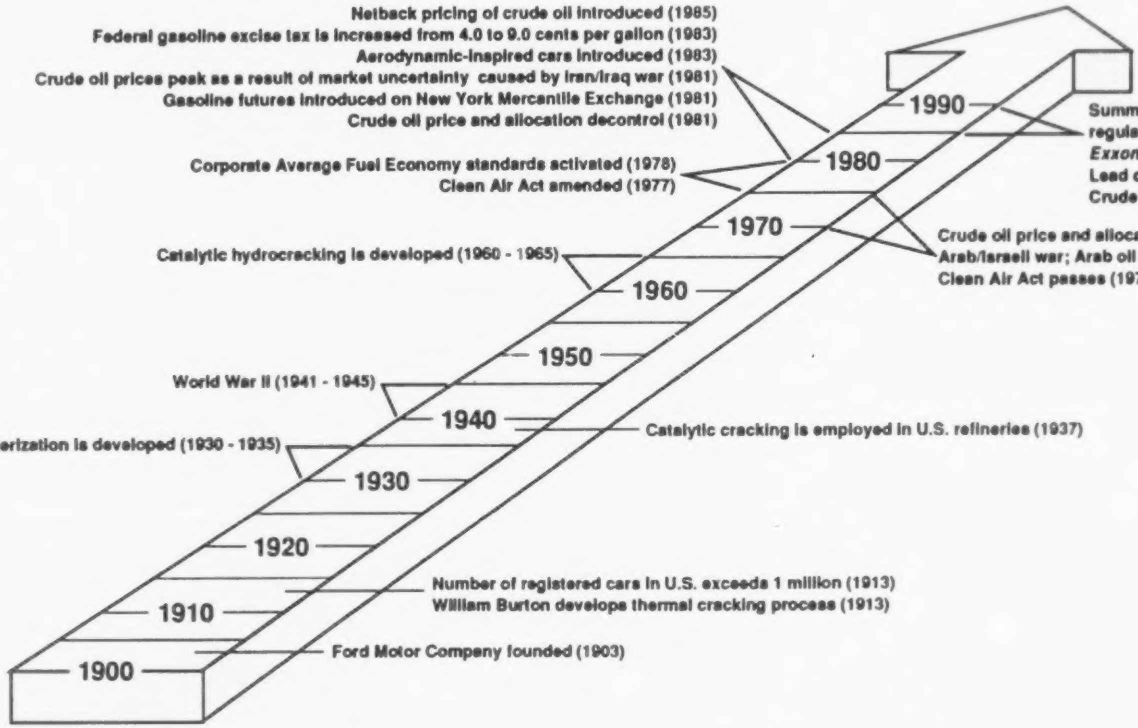
Leading PAC Recipients in U.S. Senate
(1990 Elections)

Senators	PAC Contributions
Phil Gramm (R-TX)	$1,708,040
Max Baucus (D-MT)	1,591,123
Tom Harkin (D-IA)	1,579,590
Paul Simon (D-IL)	1,577,491
Howell Heflin (D-AL)	1,411,655
Jay Rockefeller (D-WV)	1,404,257
James Exon (D-NE)	1,402,672
J. Bennett Johnston (D-LA)	1,370,213
Bill Bradley (D-NJ)	1,336,073
Carl Levin (D-MI)	1,311,809
Mitch McConnell (R-KY)	1,284,760
Hank Brown (R-CO)	1,216,935
Albert Gore (D-TN)	1,077,810
Dan Coats (R-IN)	1,012,344
Larry Pressler (R-SD)	936,716

– Leading PAC Recipients in U.S. House of Representatives
(1990 Elections)

Representatives	PAC Contributions
Richard Gephardt (D-MO)	$650,637
David Bonior (D-MI)	638,029
Peter Hoagland (D-NE)	567,193
John Dingell (D-MI)	535,677
Jolene Unsoeld (D-WA)	502,146
Robert Matsui (D-CA)	498,507
William Gray (D-PA)	458,403
Butler Derrick (D-SC)	457,591
John Bryant (D-TX)	456,921
John Murtha (D-PA)	450,120
Robert Michel (R-IL)	446,545
Jack Brooks (D-TX)	431,395
Frank Annunzio (D-IL)	424,091
Philip Sharp (D-IN)	419,699
Thomas Manton (D-NY)	417,998

MAJOR EVENTS AFFECTING U.S. MOTOR GASOLINE SUPPLY AND DEMAND, 1900 THROUGH 1990



Netback pricing of crude oil introduced (1985)
Federal gasoline excise tax is increased from 4.0 to 9.0 cents per gallon (1983)
Aerodynamic-inspired cars introduced (1983)
Crude oil prices peak as a result of market uncertainty caused by Iran/Iraq war (1981)
Gasoline futures introduced on New York Mercantile Exchange (1981)
Crude oil price and allocation decontrol (1981)

Summertime gasoline volatility regulations activated (1989)
Exxon Valdez oil spill (1989)
Lead credit program ends (1987)
Crude oil prices collapse (1986)

Corporate Average Fuel Economy standards activated (1978)
Clean Air Act amended (1977)

Crude oil price and allocation controls implemented (1974)
Arab/Israeli war; Arab oil embargo (1974)
Clean Air Act passes (1970)

Catalytic hydrocracking is developed (1960 - 1965)

World War II (1941 - 1945)

Catalytic cracking is employed in U.S. refineries (1937)

Polymerization is developed (1930 - 1935)

Number of registered cars in U.S. exceeds 1 million (1913)
William Burton develops thermal cracking process (1913)

Ford Motor Company founded (1903)

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Energy Information Administration. The Motor Gasoline Industry: Past, Present, and Future. January 1991. Page X.

continued →

FROM 8,000 TO 143 MILLION NUMBER OF PASSENGER CARS REGISTERED IN THE U.S., 1900-1989

Year	Number Registered	Year	Number Registered	Year	Number Registered	Year	Number Registered
1900	8	1923	13,253	1946	28,209	1969	86,658
1901	15	1924	15,436	1947	30,872	1970	89,244
1902	23	1925	17,481	1948	33,394	1971	92,718
1903	33	1926	19,268	1949	36,429	1972	97,082
1904	55	1927	20,193	1950	40,311	1973	101,985
1905	77	1928	21,362	1951	42,835	1974	104,856
1906	106	1929	23,121	1952	43,741	1975	106,706
1907	140	1930	23,035	1953	46,460	1976	110,189
1908	194	1931	22,396	1954	48,413	1977	112,288
1909	306	1932	20,901	1955	52,092	1978	116,573
1910	458	1933	20,657	1956	54,249	1979	118,429
1911	619	1934	21,545	1957	56,375	1980	121,601
1912	902	1935	22,568	1958	57,392	1981	123,098
1913	1,190	1936	24,201	1959	60,132	1982	123,702
1914	1,664	1937	25,490	1960	62,258	1983	126,444
1915	2,332	1938	25,272	1961	63,870	1984	128,158
1916	3,768	1939	26,252	1962	66,638	1985	131,864
1917	4,727	1940	27,488	1963	69,842	1986	135,431
1918	5,555	1941	29,691	1964	72,969	1987	137,208
1919	6,679	1942	27,970	1965	76,643	1988	141,252
1920	8,132	1943	26,005	1966	78,125	1989	E143,081
1921	9,212	1944	25,562	1967	80,399		
1922	10,704	1945	25,789	1968	83,605		

---

[a] 1900–1936 includes motorcycles. E = Estimated.

PASSENGER CAR EFFICIENCY, 1967-1988

	Average Gallons Consumed per Car		Average Miles Traveled per Car		Average Miles Traveled per Gallon of Fuel Consumed	
Year	Gallons	Index	Miles	Index	Mpg	Index
1967	715	100.0	10,060	100.0	14.07	100.0
1968	731	102.2	10,144	100.8	13.87	98.6
1969	746	104.3	10,158	101.0	13.62	96.8
1970	760	106.3	10,272	102.1	13.52	96.1
1971	770	107.7	10,422	103.6	13.54	96.2
1972	785	109.8	10,521	104.6	13.40	95.2
1973	771	107.8	10,256	101.9	13.30	94.5
1974	716	100.1	9,606	95.5	13.42	95.4
1975	716	100.1	9,690	96.3	13.52	96.1
1976	723	101.1	9,785	97.3	13.53	96.2
1977	716	100.1	9,879	98.2	13.80	98.1
1978	701	98.0	9,835	97.8	14.04	99.8
1979	653	91.3	9,403	93.5	14.41	102.4
1980	591	82.7	9,141	90.9	15.46	109.9
1981	576	80.6	9,186	91.3	15.94	113.3
1982	566	79.2	9,428	93.7	16.65	118.3
1983	553	77.3	9,475	94.2	17.14	121.8
1984	536	75.0	9,558	95.0	17.83	126.7
1985	525	73.4	9,560	95.0	18.20	129.4
1986	526	73.6	9,608	95.5	18.27	129.9
1987	514	71.9	9,878	98.2	19.20	136.5
1988[a]	507	70.9	10,119	100.6	19.95	141.8

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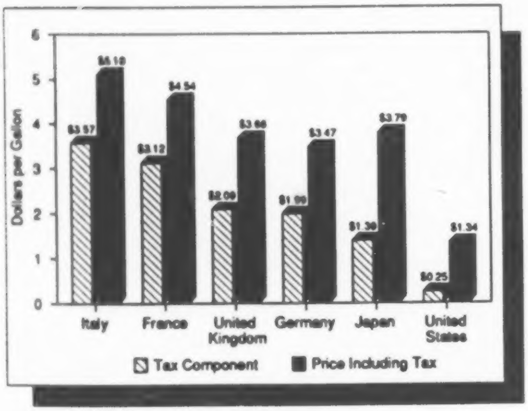
[a] Preliminary data.

Note: Geographic coverage is the 50 States and the District of Columbia.

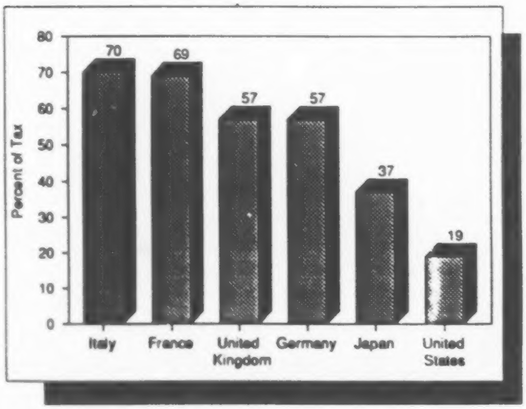
Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Energy Information Administration. The Motor Gasoline Industry. Past, Present, and Future. January 1991. Pp. 4 & 7

continued

COMPARISON OF INTERNATIONAL RETAIL GASOLINE PRICES AND TAXES, OCTOBER 15, 1990



COMPARISON OF THE PERCENT OF TAX IN INTERNATIONAL GASOLINE PRICES, OCTOBER 15, 1990



Notes: Prices cited are for the major types of gasoline consumed, i.e., premium leaded motor gasoline for Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom; and unleaded regular gasoline for Japan and the United States. Gasoline taxes in the United States are generally end-user fees, earmarked for improving the transportation system, as opposed to supporting general revenues as in the other countries.

FEDERAL AND STATE GASOLINE TAXES a (Cents per Gallon)

State	Taxes
Federal	9.10
Average State	16.10
Alabama	13.00
Alaska	8.00
Arizona	17.00
Arkansas	13.70
California	9.00
Colorado	20.00
Connecticut	20.00
Delaware	16.00
District of Columbia	18.00
Florida	9.70
Georgia	7.50
Hawaii	11.00
Idaho	18.00
Illinois	19.00
Indiana	15.08
Iowa	20.00
Kansas	15.00
Kentucky	15.00
Louisiana	20.00
Maine	17.00
Maryland	18.50
Massachusetts	11.00
Michigan	15.00
Minnesota	20.00
Mississippi	18.20
Missouri	11.00
Montana	20.00
Nebraska	12.50
Nevada	18.00
New Hampshire	14.00
New Jersey	10.50
New Mexico	16.20
New York	8.00
North Carolina	20.95
North Dakota	17.00
Ohio	18.00
Oklahoma	16.00
Oregon	18.00
Pennsylvania	17.25
Rhode Island	20.00
South Carolina	16.25
South Dakota	18.00
Tennessee	21.00
Texas	15.00
Utah	19.00
Vermont	16.00
Virginia	17.70
Washington	18.00
West Virginia	20.35
Wisconsin	20.80
Wyoming	9.00

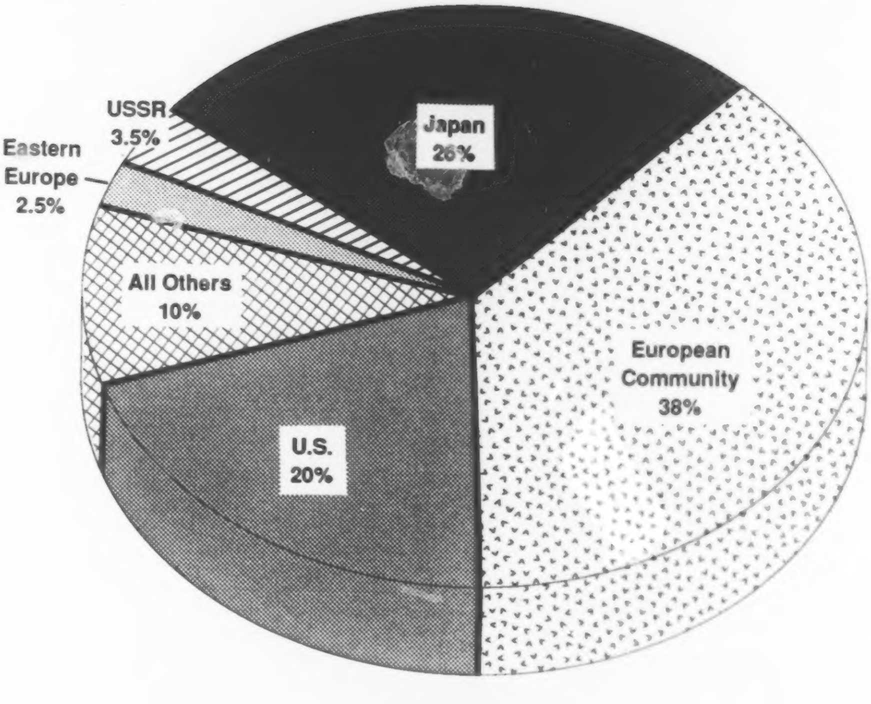
[a] As of January 1, 1990.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Energy Information Administration. The Motor Gasoline Industry: Past, Present, and Future. January 1991. Pp. 30 & 32.

JAPAN PRODUCES MORE THAN ONE-QUARTER OF THE WORLD'S AUTOMOBILES

-- Up From 1% in 1960 --

In 1950 U.S. had	76%
In 1960 Japan had	1%
U.S. had	52%
In 1985 Japan had	25%
U.S. had	26%
In 1989 Japan had	26%
U.S. had	20%



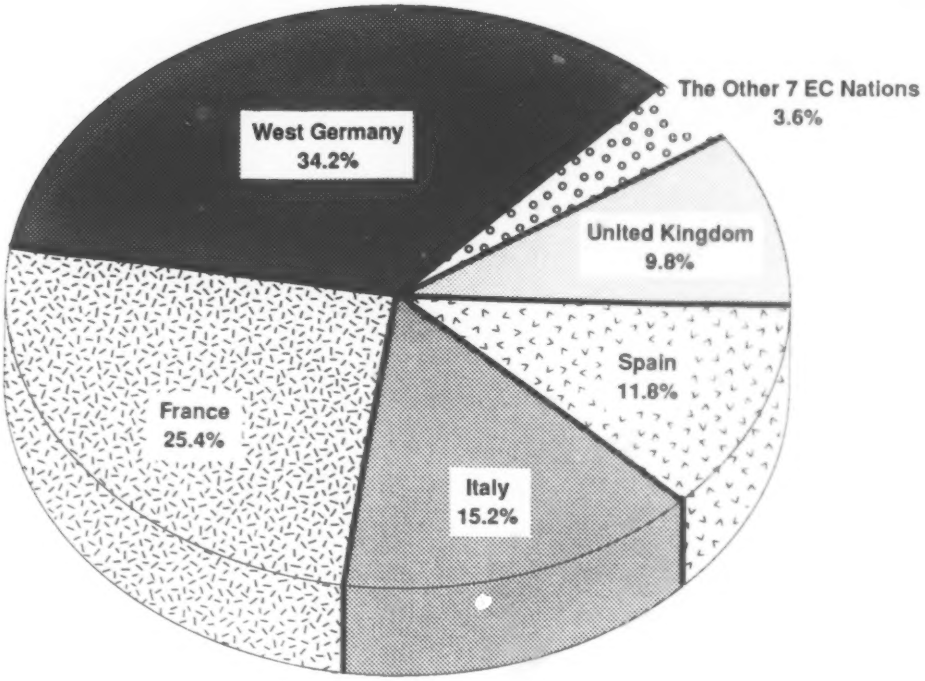
Estimated Total for 1989: 34.3 million units

World Eagle chart based on U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990. Figure 15, Page 19, and Table 120, page 139. 1950 data from Motor Vehicle Manufacturers Association of the United States, Inc. MVMA Motor Vehicle Facts and Figures 1986, p. 28. Data for years 1960 and 1985 from earlier editions of Handbook of Economic Statistics.

IN 1989, THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY PRODUCED 38% OF THE WORLD'S AUTOMOBILES

Five of the EC's 12 Nations Produced Almost All of that Total

See Chart on Preceding Page

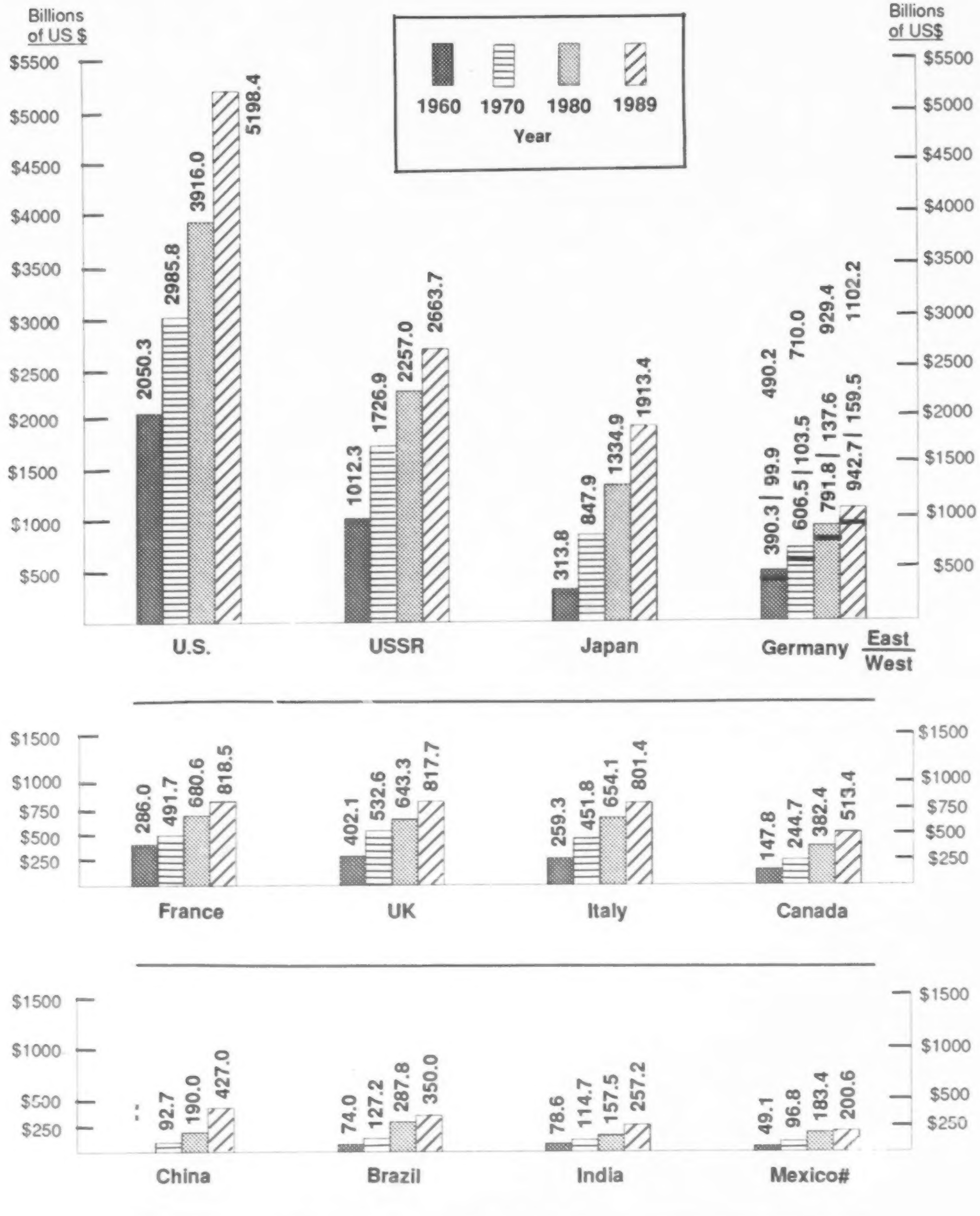


Total EC 1989 Production of Automobiles: 13,147,000

World Eagle chart. Data from the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990. Table 120, p. 139.

THE TWELVE LARGEST GNP'S
Estimated Real Gross National Product Ranked for 1989*

-- billions of 1989 US$ --



# South Korea (210.1) and Netherlands (204.4) had higher GNP's in 1989.
*** The general rate of inflation deducted, or otherwise adjusted for.**

World Eagle charts. Data from U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990, Table 7, pp. 36-37.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

OPINION

MY MESSAGE TO THE FISH

A Perspective by Political Consultant, Michael Rowan

The following is reprinted with permission from Campaigns & Elections, December-January 1991. P. 19. Copyright Campaigns & Elections Magazine, Washington, D.C.

When the International Association of Political Consultants met in Budapest, Hungary last month, I was reminded of a saying: "We don't know who invented water, but we do know it wasn't the fish."

Facing a new decade of political opportunity, the international consulting community should be cognizant of its role in democracy: Are we part of the problem, or are we contributing to the solution?

In Budapest, we heard from and about President Arpad Gonez, the Rev. Laslo Tokes, President Vaclav Havel, and others of the new political leadership of Eastern Europe and the Soviet Republics. One is the nation's top poet, another is a major dramatist. One is a philosopher, another is a writer, and one is the top scientific brain in the republic.

These are political leaders. Not since the days of Jefferson, Adams, and Madison have the great writers, philosophers, and thinkers of the United States also been its political leaders. In fact, it is a rare event in the United States to have a political leader even celebrated *by* a poet, the way Walt Whitman wrote about Abraham Lincoln, or the way Robert Frost spoke about John F. Kennedy on Inauguration Day, 1961. Other than the authentic biographers, what serious writer has taken as a subject a political leader in the United States? I can't think of one.

In 1990, the White House and Congress proved, by their inability to pass a budget in an orderly manner, that the leadership qualities of American politicians are sadly lacking. One could argue that in an effort to be overly reflective of constituent concerns, and by use of the sound bite, leadership in the United States has been eviscerated.

Big-money campaigns, political-action committees, the privatization of the public campaign, nonvoting and anti-voting, single-issue campaigns, the unholy alliance between lobbying and politics, instant polls, and voter segmentation are the characteristics of the modern campaign.

The public has truly removed itself from the American campaign: A majority do not vote. The refusal rate in surveys is enormous; the reaction against political junk mail and negative television is stinging; the cynicism toward politicians is profound. Is all this because American voters don't understand? Or do they know something the political consultants won't admit?

I believe the failure of political leadership in the United States is directly related to the political consulting industry.

I believe the failure of political leadership in the United States is directly related to the political consulting industry. The electronic campaign is one which emphasizes style over substance.

Bob Squier said it all describing one of his candidates: "Underneath this tinsel and glitter is real tinsel and glitter."

The pollsters are worse, dictating through semantic differential analyses the framing of words through which policy for a nation must emerge. Pollsters are too interested in what works immediately, and with a fickle public, such clichés don't have a long half-life. Thus the politicians are trapped by one-liners like "read my lips." In his heart, George Bush knew that was voodoo economics. Why didn't someone in the political consulting business drop that cute line and give the president a little wiggle room on taxes? Look at the trouble that caused. Will we do anything to win? Will our candidates?

The separation of government from politics in the United States is the tragedy of our business and the political crisis of the time in which we live. The privatization of the campaign and the powerlessness of the parties (or ideology in the parties) are profound forces for entropy in the American democracy.

The proliferation of specializations in the political propaganda industry is frightening: A 26-year-old pollster tells a candidate for Congress what he or she can say, or can't say.

There is a combination of ignorance and arrogance in some American political consultants which makes you wonder whether our democracy will survive. In my view, as the politicians cower before the pollsters and the spin doctor's diagnosis of the latest television commercial, the nation is producing wimpish politicians with nothing to say and no vision.

Followship is the result. And followship begets fellowship, as incumbents of both parties conspire to use the political propaganda system—in the government and in campaign fundraising—to lock up incumbency.

The minority of the public which still votes is not fooled. The 1990 version of followship was recognized for what it is in Washington. As political consultants, we need to recognize that we are part of the problem. We profit from the erosion of the democracy which we entered the political consulting business to help.

As I left Budapest, after mixing with real political leaders in a democratic world where 90 percent of the voters turn out and the people who get elected are poets and thinkers, it occurred to me that there is probably far more we can learn from Eastern Europe than we can teach about democracy. We need to listen to them for our own sake.

At the least, we should have the humility to recognize that the American political campaign, whatever it may be domestically, is not something we should be exporting proudly. ◆

Michael Rowan, a former president of the International Association of Political Consultants, is president of the Michael Rowan Group, a small professional-services company which conducts survey research and creates communications strategies for its clients. The key professionals in the company are Michael Rowan and Maureen Michaels.

EMPLOYED WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS
BY AGE, SEX, RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, FULL- OR PART-TIME STATUS, AND UNION AFFILIATION

(Numbers in thousands)

Age, sex, race, Hispanic origin, and full- or part-time status	1989					1990				
	Total employed	Members of unions[1]		Represented by unions[2]		Total employed	Members of unions[1]		Represented by unions[2]	
		Total	Percent of employed	Total	Percent of employed		Total	Percent of employed	Total	Percent of employed
SEX AND AGE										
Total, 16 years and over	103,480	16,960	16.4	19,198	18.6	103,905	16,740	16.1	19,058	18.3
16 to 24 years	19,154	1,203	6.3	1,424	7.4	18,337	1,178	6.4	1,410	7.7
25 years and over	84,325	15,757	18.7	17,773	21.1	85,568	15,562	18.2	17,648	20.6
25 to 34 years	31,210	4,471	14.3	5,150	16.5	30,972	4,336	14.0	4,991	16.1
35 to 44 years	25,316	5,292	20.9	5,975	23.6	26,411	5,323	20.2	6,023	22.8
45 to 54 years	16,233	3,719	22.9	4,134	25.5	16,556	3,685	22.3	4,138	25.0
55 to 65 years	9,302	2,056	22.1	2,272	24.4	9,279	2,008	21.6	2,254	24.3
65 years and over	2,265	220	9.7	243	10.7	2,348	209	8.9	243	10.3
Men, 16 years and over	54,789	10,820	19.7	11,955	21.8	54,828	10,564	19.3	11,731	21.4
16 to 24 years	9,892	775	7.8	899	9.1	9,503	771	8.1	900	9.5
25 years and over	44,897	10,045	22.4	11,056	24.6	45,325	9,793	21.6	10,831	23.9
25 to 34 years	17,056	2,899	17.0	3,237	19.0	16,824	2,778	16.5	3,119	18.5
35 to 44 years	13,201	3,297	25.0	3,647	27.6	13,797	3,278	23.8	3,605	26.1
45 to 54 years	8,518	2,383	28.0	2,583	30.3	8,582	2,335	27.2	2,557	29.8
55 to 65 years	4,965	1,344	27.1	1,455	29.3	4,961	1,297	26.2	1,425	28.7
65 years and over	1,157	121	10.5	133	11.5	1,162	104	9.0	124	10.7
Women, 16 years and over	48,691	6,141	12.6	7,243	14.9	49,077	6,175	12.6	7,327	14.9
16 to 24 years	9,262	428	4.6	525	5.7	8,834	407	4.6	509	5.8
25 years and over	39,428	5,712	14.5	6,717	17.0	40,243	5,768	14.3	6,817	16.9
25 to 34 years	14,153	1,571	11.1	1,913	13.5	14,148	1,558	11.0	1,872	13.2
35 to 44 years	12,114	1,995	16.5	2,327	19.2	12,614	2,044	16.2	2,417	19.2
45 to 54 years	7,715	1,335	17.3	1,550	20.1	7,976	1,350	16.9	1,581	19.8
55 to 64 years	4,337	712	16.4	817	18.8	4,318	711	16.5	828	19.2
65 years and over	1,108	99	8.9	110	9.9	1,186	105	8.8	119	10.0
RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, AND SEX										
White, 16 years and over	88,622	13,894	15.7	15,689	17.7	89,120	13,798	15.5	15,669	17.6
Men	47,410	9,140	19.3	10,055	21.2	47,515	8,914	18.8	9,865	20.8
Women	41,212	4,754	11.5	5,634	13.7	41,605	4,884	11.7	5,805	14.0
Black, 16 years and over	11,470	2,549	22.2	2,912	25.4	11,416	2,410	21.1	2,771	24.3
Men	5,597	1,387	24.8	1,566	28.0	5,541	1,350	24.4	1,523	27.5
Women	5,873	1,162	19.8	1,345	22.9	5,875	1,060	18.0	1,248	21.2
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	7,894	1,196	15.2	1,330	16.8	8,181	1,209	14.8	1,348	16.5
Men	4,710	793	16.8	870	18.5	4,869	794	16.3	876	18.0
Women	3,184	403	12.6	460	14.5	3,312	415	12.5	472	14.2
FULL- OR PART-TIME STATUS[3]										
Full-time workers	84,553	15,701	18.6	17,683	20.9	85,082	15,422	18.1	17,469	20.5
Part-time workers	18,926	1,259	6.7	1,515	8.0	18,822	1,318	7.0	1,589	8.4

---

[1] Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union.

[2] Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee association contract.

[3] The distinction between full- and part-time workers is based on hours usually worked.

NOTE: Data refer to the sole or principal job of full- and part-time workers. Excluded are self-employed workers whose businesses are incorporated although they technically qualify as wage and salary workers. Detail for the above race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings, January 1991. Table 57. P. 228.

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MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS
OF FULL-TIME WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS BY AGE, SEX, RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, AND UNION AFFILIATION

Age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin	1989				1990			
	Total	Members of unions[1]	Represented by unions[2]	Non-union	Total	Members of unions[1]	Represented by unions[2]	Non-union
SEX AND AGE								
Total, 16 years and over	$399	$497	$494	$372	$415	$509	$507	$390
16 to 24 years	259	335	331	252	269	348	343	263
25 years and over	427	505	502	403	450	518	516	420
25 to 34 years	394	473	466	378	408	483	479	395
35 to 44 years	472	519	518	438	487	538	534	463
45 to 54 years	472	523	523	431	488	552	553	453
55 to 65 years	431	504	504	401	456	514	514	418
65 years and over	334	478	470	306	343	493	491	317
Men, 16 years and over	468	527	524	430	485	542	541	457
16 to 24 years	271	359	356	262	283	370	365	274
25 years and over	500	539	538	483	514	556	557	499
25 to 34 years	434	500	496	415	452	508	506	432
35 to 44 years	542	561	561	527	563	577	577	552
45 to 54 years	569	569	570	567	592	590	594	590
55 to 65 years	521	542	543	510	545	555	557	532
65 years and over	393	575	565	358	402	508	508	380
Women, 16 years and over	328	417	416	312	348	448	444	326
16 to 24 years	246	297	299	242	254	312	309	250
25 years and over	351	425	424	330	370	459	456	349
25 to 34 years	340	407	403	327	357	419	416	345
35 to 44 years	370	452	453	345	391	487	483	366
45 to 54 years	357	444	445	329	377	476	474	351
55 to 64 years	333	400	405	312	348	429	432	324
65 years and over	292	387	382	267	300	478	474	280
RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, AND SEX								
White, 16 years and over	409	506	503	384	427	521	518	402
Men	482	539	537	452	497	557	557	477
Women	334	427	423	317	355	461	456	335
Black, 16 years and over	319	425	423	290	329	440	434	302
Men	348	478	470	305	360	476	471	318
Women	301	385	390	276	308	404	403	286
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	298	420	417	276	307	425	422	288
Men	315	457	451	291	322	464	460	301
Women	269	369	368	255	280	367	367	266

[1] Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union.

[2] Data refer to members of a labor union or an employee association similar to a union as well as workers who report no union affiliation but whose jobs are covered by a union or an employee association contract.

NOTE: Data refer to the sole or principal job of full-time workers. Excluded are self-employed workers whose businesses are incorporated although they technically qualify as wage and salary workers. Detail for the above race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Employment and Earnings, January 1991. Table 59. P. 230

PROFILES

In The U.S., A Decrease in Alcohol-Related Fatalities

Data by National Highway Safety Administration as cited in MADD's (Mothers Against Drunk Driving) MADD in Action, September-December 1990.

The number of people killed on America's highways in alcohol-related crashes is declining, according to figures recently released by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). In 1989, there were 22,415 alcohol-related traffic fatalities in the U.S.—936 fewer deaths than in 1988.

MADD National President Micky Sadoff said, "MADD is pleased to see this evidence of progress against drunk driving. However, 22,415 deaths, and the hundreds of thousands of injuries, represent enormous pain and tragedy which still must be eliminated."

"Although the decrease is encouraging, we cannot be complacent about our continuing mission—which is to stop drunk driving and support victims of this violent crime," she continued.

The figures demonstrate a 14 percent reduction in the percentage of traffic fatalities which are alcohol-related from 1982 to 1989. The actual number of alcohol-related fatalities declined from 25,170 to 22,415, an 11 percent decrease. The most dramatic decrease in this time period was in the 15-to-19 year-old age group, which shows a 33 percent reduction in the number of alcohol-related traffic fatalities.

Alcohol-Related Traffic Fatalities

Age Group	1982	1989	1982-1989
0-14	950	790	-17%
15-19	4,135	2,775	-33%
20-24	5,840	4,215	-28%
25-64	12,750	13,200	+ 4%
65 +	1,345	1,345	—
Unknown	150	90	-40%
Totals	25,170	22,415	-11%
Total Traffic Fatalities	43,945	45,553	+ 3.7%
Percentage Alcohol-Related	57.3%	49.2%	-14%

Drunk Driving Victims Protection Act Signed Into Law

A measure to protect victims of drunk driving was recently signed into law by President Bush. "The Drunk Driving Victims Protection Act," prevents a felony DWI offender from discharging payments to victims by filing for bankruptcy under Chapter 13. This measure was also part of Senate Bill 3266, "The Crime Control Act of 1990," which was signed as well.

The immediate enactment of this legislation marks another victory for victims of alcohol- and other drug-impaired driving. The new law clearly echoes MADD's position that "persons who kill or injure others as a result of driving impaired by alcohol or other drugs should not have the privilege of filing bankruptcy to avoid paying restitution or civil judgments to their victims."

Since the enactment of the "Bankruptcy Amendments and Federal Judgeship Act" in 1984, DWI offenders have not been able to discharge their debts under Chapter 7. But under Chapter 13, offenders were still able to escape their debts. The new legislation seeks to correct this injustice and addresses Chapter 13 accordingly: (1) to make clear that debts arising from drunk driving or the use of drugs is a nondischargeable debt; (2) by removing the need on the part of the victim to secure a judgment or consent decree against a drunk driver before making a claim of non-dischargeability, to eliminate the "race to the courthouse" in which the drunk driver seeks to have his or her debt discharged prior to a judgment being rendered; and (3) to extend the coverage of this provision to those who drive while impaired by drugs other than alcohol.

Source: Mothers Against Drunk Driving. MADD In Action, January-March 1991. P.1.

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OCTOBER 1991: THE URBAN SCENE
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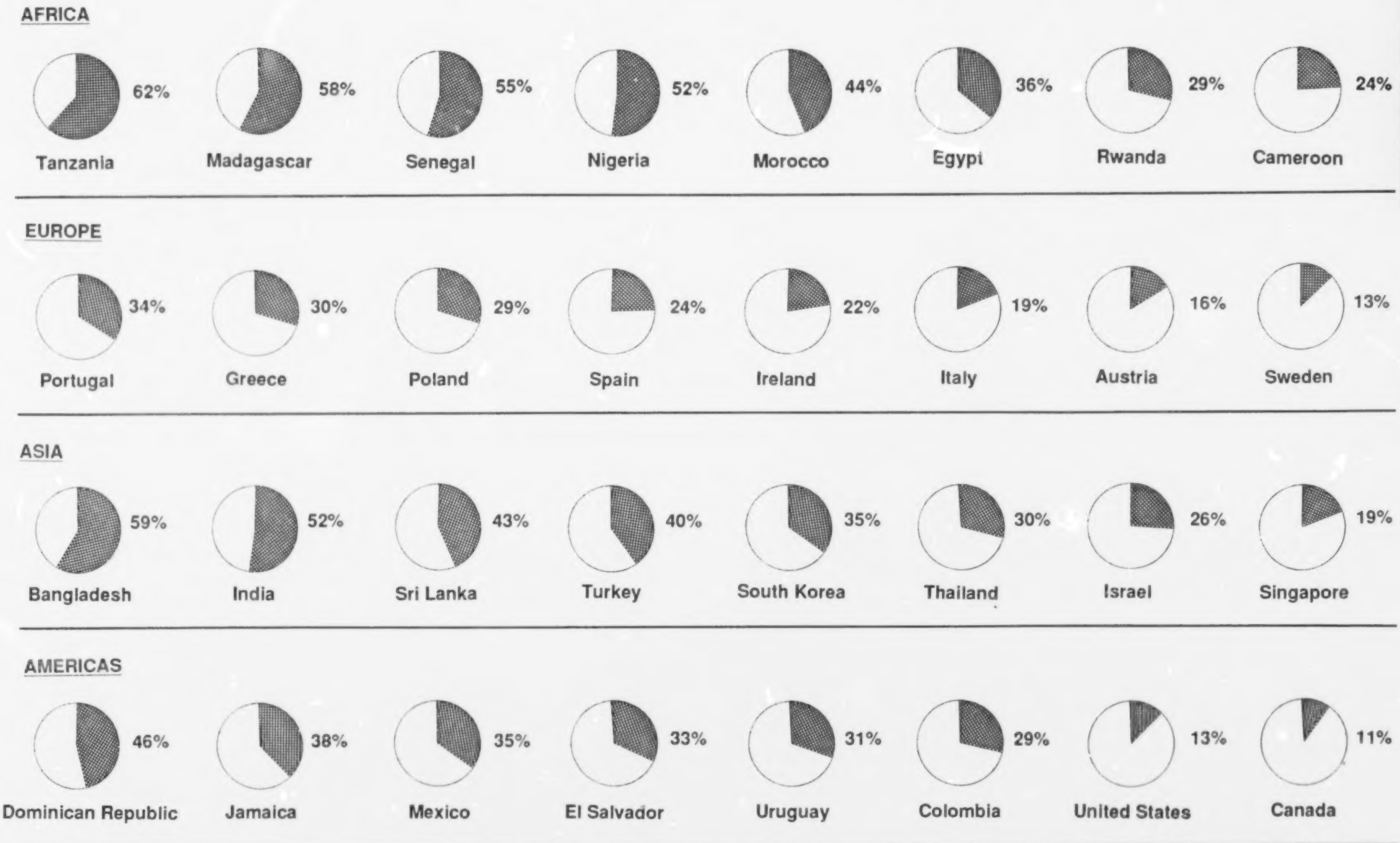
FOOD CONSUMPTION AS A SHARE OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION [a]



Source: U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's Handbook of Economic Statistics 1990, Table 17, p. 21.

[a] Range of years 1980-1985

TOP TEN U.S. STATES BY THE VALUE OF THEIR AGRICULTURAL CASH RECEIPTS, 1989

Commodities	Rank	Value	Top 10 States by their value of cash receipts									
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Million dollars	State and million dollars									
Total		159,173	CA 17,515	TX 10,760	IA 9,119	NE 8,521	IL 6,710	MN 6,526	KS 6,324	FL 6,203	WI 5,278	NC 4,551
Livestock & poultry	1	83,724	TX 6,863	NE 5,643	IA 5,209	CA 5,093	WI 4,337	KS 4,245	MN 3,716	AR 2,661	CO 2,649	PA 2,595
Crops	2	75,449	CA 12,422	FL 4,982	IL 4,458	IA 3,911	TX 3,897	NE 2,878	MN 2,809	IN 2,502	WA 2,438	OH 2,114
Cattle and calves	1	36,676	TX 5,050	NE 4,634	KS 3,753	CO 2,233	IA 2,027	OK 1,844	CA 1,505	SD 1,456	MN 1,063	MO 927
Dairy products	2	19,401	WI 3,183	CA 2,431	NY 1,556	PA 1,453	MN 1,305	TX 739	MI 694	OH 609	WA 556	IA 537
Corn	3	11,116	IL 1,992	IA 1,916	NE 1,592	IN 1,119	MN 801	OH 578	TX 349	MO 325	KS 295	CO 274
Soybeans	4	10,837	IL 1,820	IA 1,780	MN 975	IN 896	MO 755	OH 735	AR 525	NE 475	KS 295	MS 287
Hogs	5	9,426	IA 2,421	IL 984	MN 811	NE 723	IN 700	NC 509	MO 475	OH 383	SD 335	KS 268
Broilers	6	8,780	AR 1,469	GA 1,250	AL 1,134	NC 848	MS 594	TX 483	DE 458	MD 449	CA 361	VA 297
Greenhouse and nursery	7	7,295	CA 1,586	FL 956	TX 477	PA 288	OR 279	NY 262	MI 254	NJ 233	OK 224	NC 214
Wheat	8	7,185	KS 898	ND 629	OK 580	WA 495	MT 391	IL 372	ID 335	MN 298	MO 290	CO 273
Cotton	9	4,740	TX 1,491	CA 1,086	AZ 486	MS 476	LA 252	AR 241	TN 142	AL 124	GA 111	OK 92
Eggs	10	3,854	CA 402	GA 286	IN 281	PA 257	AR 237	TX 223	NC 222	OH 183	AL 153	FL 122
Hay	11	3,407	CA 658	CO 165	TX 163	KS 161	WA 133	MT 120	ID 114	NE 114	AZ 113	NM 100
Tobacco	12	2,381	NC 946	KY 638	SC 178	VA 160	TN 148	GA 146	FL 30	OH 29	MD 21	IN 21
Potatoes	13	2,288	ID 587	WA 299	CA 166	WI 154	ME 152	CO 135	FL 128	ND 93	OR 90	MN 88
Turkeys	14	2,222	NC 407	MN 290	CA 249	AZ 169	MO 144	VA 134	IN 126	IA 73	PA 72	CO 71
Tomatoes	15	1,824	CA 809	FL 741	OH 45	VA 41	SC 25	PA 20	NY 19	IN 18	NJ 16	MI 16
Oranges	16	1,814	FL 1,316	CA 472	AZ 16	TX 10	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Grapes	17	1,718	CA 1,551	WA 69	NY 39	AZ 18	PA 16	MI 11	OR 6	OH 2	GA 2	AR 2
Sorghum grain	18	1,143	KS 351	TX 342	NE 193	MO 68	AR 46	OK 34	NM 22	CO 18	IL 15	SD 14
Apples	19	1,125	WA 494	CA 103	NY 96	MI 80	PA 43	VA 38	OH 31	NC 26	MA 20	WV 20
Peanuts	20	1,119	GA 494	AL 157	TX 136	NC 111	VA 74	OK 63	FL 59	NM 13	SC 12	AZ 1
Sugarbeets	21	1,037	MN 240	ID 175	CA 169	ND 124	MI 92	WY 51	NE 50	MT 46	CO 38	TX 28
Lettuce	22	950	CA 670	AZ 190	FL 36	CO 10	WA 8	TX 8	NY 7	NM 6	OH 5	NJ 5
Cane for sugar	23	884	FL 433	HI 215	LA 209	TX 27	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Rice	24	869	AR 357	CA 180	TX 120	LA 111	MS 76	MO 25	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Barley	25	750	ND 165	ID 130	MT 111	MN 91	WA 68	CA 36	CO 34	OR 25	SD 22	WY 13

n.a. = not applicable.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Economic Indicators of the Farm Sector: State Financial Summary 1989. Table 2, P. 9.

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TOP FARM PRODUCING STATES IN 1989

(All figures in millions of $)

Cattle and calves

TX	$5,050
NE	4,634
KS	3,753
CO	2,233
IA	2,027
OK	1,844
CA	1,505
SD	1,456
MN	1,063
MO	927
U.S. Total	$36,676

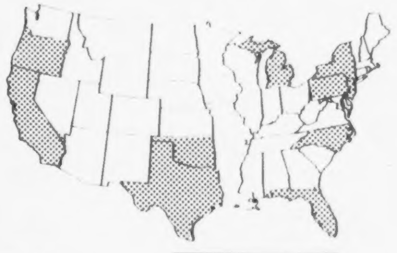
Soybeans

IA	$1,780
II	1,820
MN	975
IN	896
MO	755
OH	735
NE	475
AR	525
KS	295
MS	287
U.S. Total	$10,837

Hogs

IA	$2,421
II	984
MN	811
NE	723
IN	700
NC	509
MO	475
OH	383
SD	335
KS	268
U.S. Total	$9,426

Greenhouse/Nursery



CA	$1,586
FL	956
TX	477
PA	288
OR	279
NY	262
MI	254
NJ	233
OK	224
NC	214
U.S. Total	$7,295

Cotton

TX	$1,491
CA	1,086
AZ	486
MS	476
LA	252
AR	241
TN	142
AL	124
GA	111
OK	92
U.S. Total	$4,740

Dairy Products

WI	$3,183
CA	2,431
NY	1,556
PA	1,453
MN	1,305
TX	739
MI	694
OH	609
WA	556
IA	537
U.S. Total	$19,401

Corn

IL	$1,992
IA	1,916
NE	1,592
IN	1,119
MN	801
OH	578
TX	349
MO	325
KS	295
CO	274
U.S. Total	$11,116

Broilers

AR	$1,469
GA	1,250
AL	1,134
NC	848
MS	594
TX	483
DE	458
MD	449
CA	361
VA	297
U.S. Total	$8,780

Wheat

KS	$898
ND	629
OK	580
WA	495
MT	391
IL	372
ID	335
MN	298
MO	290
CO	273
U.S. Total	$7,185

Eggs

CA	$402
GA	286
IN	281
PA	257
AR	237
NC	232
TX	223
OH	183
AL	153
FL	122
U.S. Total	$3,854

World Eagle Illustrations. Data from U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Economic Indicators of the Farm Sector: State Financial Summary, 1989. Table 2, p. 9.

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STATES RANKED BY AGRICULTURAL CASH RECEIPTS, 1989

(in millions of dollars)

(including net commodity credit Corporation loans)

State	Total		Livestock and products		Crops		Five leading commodities for each State									
							1		2		3		4		5	
	Rank	Cash receipts	Rank	Cash receipts	Rank	Cash receipts	Commodity and rank	Cash receipts	Commodity and rank	Cash receipts	Commodity and rank	Cash receipts	Commodity and rank	Cash receipts	Commodity and rank	Cash receipts
Alabama	25	2,628	18	1,932	32	696	Broilers 3	1,134	Cattle/calf 20	471	Grnhs/nurs 14	168	Peanuts 2	157	Eggs 9	153
Alaska	50	29	50	9	50	20	Grnhs/nurs 43	14	Dairy prods 50	5	Potatoes 21	36	Cattle/calf 49	21	Hay 47	2
Arizona	31	1,902	32	744	23	1,158	Cotton 3	486	Cattle/calf 21	451	Dairy prods 22	206	Lettuce 2	190	Hay 9	113
Arkansas	12	4,131	8	2,661	18	1,470	Broilers 1	1,469	Soybeans 7	525	Cattle/calf 18	486	Rice 1	357	Cotton 6	241
California	1	17,515	4	5,093	1	12,422	Dairy prods 2	2,431	Grnhs/nurs 1	1,586	Grapes 1	1,551	Cattle/calf 7	1,505	Cotton 2	1,086
Colorado	14	3,899	9	2,649	21	1,250	Cattle/calf 4	2,233	Corn 10	274	Wheat 10	273	Dairy prods 26	183	Hay 2	165
Connecticut	45	404	44	186	41	218	Grnhs/nurs 17	129	Eggs 15	83	Dairy prods 38	76	Tobacco 11	20	Cattle/calf 45	14
Delaware	39	663	39	503	44	160	Broilers 7	458	Soybeans 26	41	Grnhs/nurs 36	32	Corn 26	25	Dairy prods 47	18
Florida	8	6,203	25	1,221	2	4,982	Oranges 1	1,316	Grnhs/nurs 2	956	Tomatoes 2	741	Cane/sugar 1	433	Dairy prods 12	388
Georgia	15	3,869	13	2,270	16	1,598	Broilers 2	1,250	Peanuts 1	494	Eggs 2	286	Cattle/calf 31	281	Dairy prods 25	196
Hawaii	41	587	47	92	35	495	Cane/sugar 2	215	Pineapples 1	95	Grnhs/nurs 24	70	Macad.nuts 1	41	Dairy prods 46	32
Idaho	24	2,715	28	1,046	14	1,670	Cattle/calf 15	661	Potatoes 1	587	Wheat 7	335	Dairy prods 15	322	Sugarbeets 2	175
Illinois	5	6,710	14	2,252	3	4,458	Corn 1	1,992	Soybeans 1	1,820	Hogs 2	984	Cattle/calf 11	791	Wheat 6	372
Indiana	11	4,318	19	1,817	8	2,502	Corn 4	1,119	Soybeans 4	896	Hogs 5	700	Cattle/calf 29	303	Dairy prods 16	295
Iowa	3	9,119	3	5,209	4	3,911	Hogs 1	2,421	Cattle/calf 5	2,027	Corn 2	1,916	Soybeans 2	1,780	Dairy prods 10	537
Kansas	7	6,324	6	4,245	11	2,079	Cattle/calf 3	3,753	Wheat 1	898	Sorghum 1	351	Corn 9	295	Soybeans 9	295
Kentucky	22	2,928	21	1,670	20	1,258	Tobacco 2	638	Cattle/calf 16	633	Horses/mule 1	524	Dairy prods 17	295	Soybeans 15	198
Louisiana	32	1,661	36	614	24	1,048	Cotton 5	252	Soybeans 13	240	Cane/sugar 3	209	Cattle/calf 34	200	Dairy prods 32	136
Maine	42	447	42	215	40	233	Potatoes 5	152	Eggs 12	97	Dairy prods 36	88	Apples 11	17	Grnhs/nurs 42	17
Maryland	35	1,346	31	870	36	476	Broilers 8	449	Dairy prods 24	198	Grnhs/nurs 13	174	Soybeans 27	94	Cattle/calf 40	76
Massachusetts	43	429	46	112	39	317	Grnhs/nurs 15	147	Cranberries 1	84	Dairy prods 40	66	Eggs 33	22	Apples 9	20
Michigan	21	2,941	23	1,313	15	1,627	Dairy prods 7	694	Cattle/calf 32	269	Corn 11	267	Grnhs/nurs 7	254	Soybeans 14	229
Minnesota	6	6,526	7	3,716	7	2,809	Dairy prods 5	1,305	Cattle/calf 9	1,063	Soybeans 3	975	Hogs 3	810	Corn 5	801
Mississippi	27	2,292	24	1,292	25	1,000	Broilers 5	594	Cotton 4	476	Soybeans 10	287	Cattle/calf 33	259	Aquaculture 1	195
Missouri	13	3,900	15	2,168	13	1,732	Cattle/calf 10	927	Soybeans 5	755	Hogs 7	475	Dairy prods 11	388	Corn 8	325
Montana	33	1,610	30	899	31	710	Cattle/calf 12	770	Wheat 5	391	Hay 6	120	Barley 3	111	Sugarbeets 8	46
Nebraska	4	8,521	2	5,643	6	2,878	Cattle/calf 2	4,634	Corn 3	1,592	Hogs 4	723	Soybeans 8	475	Wheat 11	241
Nevada	47	235	45	141	45	94	Cattle/calf 39	97	Hay 25	54	Dairy prods 45	37	Potatoes 22	13	Wheat 41	4
New Hampshire	48	142	48	63	46	79	Dairy prods 43	42	Grnhs/nurs 35	32	Apples 16	12	Cattle/calf 46	11	Hay 43	6
New Jersey	40	660	43	197	37	463	Grnhs/nurs 8	233	Dairy prods 41	51	Eggs 30	27	Blueberries 1	24	Peaches 1	23
New Mexico	34	1,424	29	974	38	450	Cattle/calf 14	749	Dairy prods 28	170	Hay 10	100	Cotton 12	51	Onions 5	44
New York	23	2,857	17	1,946	28	911	Dairy prods 3	1,556	Grnhs/nurs 6	262	Cattle/calf 35	184	Apples 3	96	Hay 18	75
North Carolina	10	4,551	11	2,505	12	2,046	Tobacco 1	946	Broilers 4	848	Hogs 6	509	Turkeys 1	407	Soybeans 12	243
North Dakota	28	2,108	35	642	18	1,465	Wheat 2	629	Cattle/calf 22	443	Barley 1	165	Sunflowers 1	145	Sugarbeets 4	124
Ohio	16	3,812	20	1,698	10	2,114	Soybeans 6	735	Dairy prods 8	609	Corn 6	578	Cattle/calf 26	394	Hogs 8	383
Oklahoma	18	3,594	12	2,409	22	1,185	Cattle/calf 6	1,844	Wheat 3	580	Grnhs/nurs 9	224	Broilers 12	198	Dairy prods 29	168
Oregon	26	2,297	33	739	17	1,557	Cattle/calf 28	344	Grnhs/nurs 5	279	Wheat 13	231	Dairy prods 23	200	Ryegrass 1	102
Pennsylvania	19	3,581	10	2,595	26	986	Dairy prods 4	1,453	Cattle/calf 25	411	Grnhs/nurs 4	288	Eggs 4	257	Mushrooms 1	218
Rhode Island	49	79	49	13	47	66	Grnhs/nurs 34	38	Dairy prods 49	5	Eggs 45	4	Potatoes 34	2	Apples 34	1
South Carolina	36	1,225	38	551	34	675	Tobacco 3	178	Cattle/calf 36	150	Soybeans 18	121	Broilers 17	109	Eggs 17	75
South Dakota	20	2,992	16	2,108	29	884	Cattle/calf 8	1,456	Hogs 9	335	Soybeans 11	261	Wheat 14	226	Corn 12	220
Tennessee	30	1,921	27	1,060	30	861	Cattle/calf 23	433	Dairy prods 18	285	Soybeans 16	194	Hogs 15	159	Tobacco 5	148
Texas	2	10,760	1	6,863	5	3,897	Cattle/calf 1	5,050	Cotton 1	1,491	Dairy prods 6	739	Broilers 5	483	Grnhs/nurs 3	477
Utah	38	748	37	574	43	174	Cattle/calf 30	287	Dairy prods 31	148	Hay 24	58	Turkeys 15	44	Eggs 30	25
Vermont	44	426	40	375	49	51	Dairy prods 14	325	Cattle/calf 41	42	Hay 35	14	Maple prods 1	12	Grnhs/nurs 45	11
Virginia	29	2,058	22	1,372	33	685	Cattle/calf 24	415	Broilers 10	297	Dairy prods 19	280	Tobacco 4	160	Turkeys 6	134
Washington	17	3,639	26	1,201	9	2,438	Dairy prods 9	557	Wheat 4	495	Apples 1	494	Cattle/calf 19	478	Potatoes 2	299
West Virginia	46	314	41	250	48	64	Cattle/calf 38	116	Broilers 20	48	Dairy prods 44	37	Turkeys 20	23	Apples 10	20
Wisconsin	9	5,278	5	4,337	27	941	Dairy prods 1	3,183	Cattle/calf 13	761	Hogs 11	207	Corn 13	203	Potatoes 4	154
Wyoming	37	856	34	669	42	186	Cattle/calf 17	601	Hay 22	68	Sugarbeets 6	51	Sheep & lamb 5	33	Dry beans 34	25
United States		159,174		83,723		75,449										

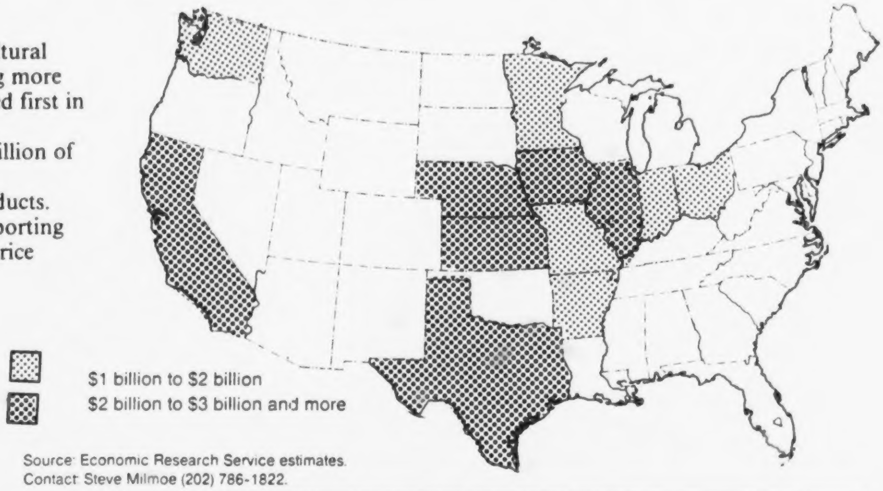
1/ All cash receipts data are reported in million dollars.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Economic Indicators of the Farm Sector: State Financial Summary 1989. Table 3, p.10.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE...AT A GLANCE

Farm Exports Totaled More than $2 Billion for Six Leading States in 1989

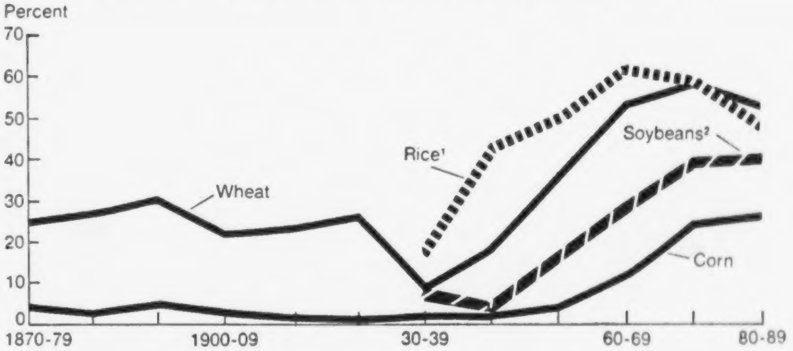
California led the list of agricultural exporting States in 1989, shipping more than $3.5 billion. The State ranked first in fruit, vegetable, and nut exports. Nebraska exported almost $3.0 billion of farm products in 1989 and led in shipments of feed grains and products. Though not one of the top 10 exporting States, Arkansas was the leading rice exporter in 1989.



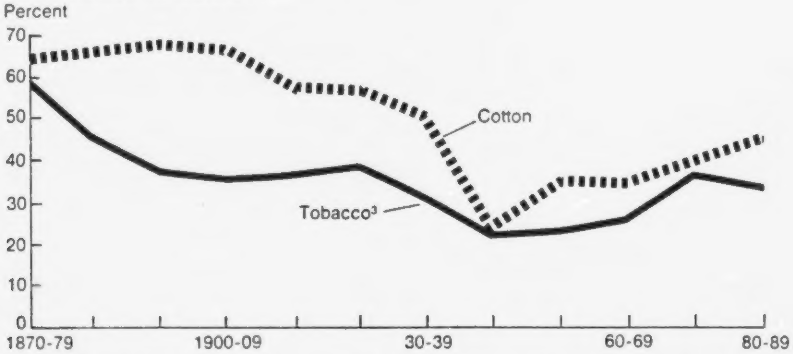
Source: Economic Research Service estimates.
Contact: Steve Milmoe (202) 786-1822.

Trade has played an integral role in U.S. agriculture through most of the 20th century. With the exception of the 1930's, a period characterized by restrictive Depression-era tariff laws, and the war years of the 1940's, agricultural exports have provided important outlets for U.S. agricultural production. For example, almost 25 percent of the wheat crop was exported from 1900 through 1930. In the 1950's, the export share of wheat production reached 33 percent each year, and climbed to an average of 58 percent in the 1970's.

The Share of Production Exported Has Grown for Some Commodities . . .



And Declined for Others . . .



[1] Rice production and trade data were not reported prior to 1930. [2] Soybean production and trade data were not reported prior to 1931. Nine-year average used for soybeans in 1930-39. [3] Eight-year average used for tobacco in 1980-88.

Source: Karen Z. Ackerman and Mark E. Smith. *Agricultural Export Programs Background for 1990 Farm Legislation.* USDA, ERS, Staff Report No. AGES 9033. May 1990. p. 3.
Contact: Karen Ackerman (202) 786-1821.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, July-September 1990. P.41.

THE TOP 50 PURCHASERS OF U.S. AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS AND THE TOP 50 SUPPLIERS OF U.S. AGRICULTURAL IMPORTS

(1986-1989, Millions of Dollars Ranked for 1989)

The Top Purchasers (Domestic and Foreign Merchandise, FAS)

	1986	1987	1988	1989
Japan	5,074	5,699	7,673	8,125
USSR	655	930	2,169	3,436
Mexico	1,084	1,196	2,239	2,723
Korea, South	1,308	1,846	2,285	2,606
Canada	1,812	2,116	2,307	2,491
Taiwan	1,168	1,285	1,646	1,750
Netherlands	2,067	1,966	2,024	1,694
China	68	377	772	1,419
Germany, West	1,123	1,285	1,240	1,003
Egypt	795	674	812	977
Spain	697	644	884	862
Iraq	338	517	803	732
United Kingdom	648	629	809	664
Italy	720	697	692	635
Hong Kong	404	468	488	612
Pakistan	226	137	392	552
Algeria	286	307	564	453
Belgium/Luxembourg	378	439	393	446
Venezuela	449	488	679	445
France	429	517	522	439
Saudi Arabia	384	483	424	432
Philippines	243	258	337	345
Portugal	295	273	298	319
Turkey	123	122	122	305
Israel (incl Gaza)	252	264	324	289
Dominican Republic	168	205	222	263
Indonesia	191	173	222	230
Ireland	89	118	148	200
Bangladesh	109	135	104	189
Morocco	167	212	218	189
Thailand	90	108	164	183
Switzerland	128	147	180	172
Brazil	554	271	71	166
Singapore	118	127	151	159
Jamaica	108	102	147	159
Jordan	59	49	79	155
Colombia	110	129	183	148
Australia	120	111	147	141
India	84	90	420	134
Bulgaria	51	47	96	130
Peru	137	129	160	127
Sweden	106	116	149	127
Ecuador	69	73	102	120
Malaysia	77	90	98	109
Bahamas	119	112	115	108
Haiti	72	101	100	107
Sri Lanka	36	41	79	104
Norway	105	83	91	103
Tunisia	61	52	125	100
Denmark	102	107	117	99

The Top Suppliers (General Imports, CIF)

	1986	1987	1988	1989
Canada	2,080	2,295	2,527	2,885
Mexico	2,037	1,879	1,833	2,279
Brazil	1,824	1,922	2,065	1,508
Australia	758	973	1,170	1,039
Colombia	985	755	816	829
Indonesia	668	689	869	797
New Zealand	504	632	700	744
Netherlands	665	674	741	720
France	717	657	652	676
Italy	539	615	592	604
Germany, West	641	571	498	473
Philippines	475	394	454	462
Thailand	284	301	360	430
Ecuador	554	444	387	418
Spain	321	366	406	415
Costa Rica	370	350	344	394
Malaysia	323	325	434	390
Chile	236	302	353	389
Denmark	592	592	510	386
Guatemala	518	372	273	384
Argentina	260	313	388	379
Turkey	237	260	150	325
Dominican Republic	411	302	309	320
China	187	224	265	310
Honduras	298	339	263	267
India	374	311	212	232
United Kingdom	205	183	187	202
Japan	190	193	195	178
Ivory Coast	393	328	252	174
Taiwan	182	194	155	150
El Salvador	300	178	165	126
Poland	125	134	129	119
Peru	188	99	110	116
Greece	91	120	91	112
Belgium/Luxembourg	113	107	91	103
Switzerland	111	112	102	95
Hong Kong	79	80	80	95
Sweden	85	82	87	94
Yugoslavia	65	73	66	82
Hungary	60	68	63	76
Finland	92	88	64	74
Israel (incl Gaza)	73	67	56	71
Liberia	56	60	76	69
Nigeria	7	11	43	68
Ethiopia	69	70	47	65
Austria	60	61	48	60
Singapore	73	65	69	58
Portugal	58	63	59	54
Korea, South	47	69	80	53
Panama	145	115	71	52

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. 1989 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 86 & 87.

THE GLOBALIZATION OF FOOD MARKETING

Food marketing is going international. Around the world, food processors, wholesalers, and retailers, as well as foodservice firms, are looking to foreign nations to expand their markets.

The U.S. food processing firm, Borden, for example, operates 44 of its 183 plants in foreign countries. H.J. Heinz has 47 foreign plants. U.S. foodservice firms are also expanding their overseas operations. Visitors to Moscow will now find McDonald's golden arches, and the Persian Gulf is home to 30 new Wendy's restaurants.

U.S. companies' sales from their foreign food processing, wholesaling, retailing, and foodservice operations reached $82 billion in 1988 *(table 1)*. Food manufacturing affiliates had $60 billion in sales, food wholesaling affiliates nearly $11 billion, and food stores and restaurant affiliates over $11 billion.

At the same time, foreign firms are gaining ground in U.S. markets by purchasing U.S. firms and establishing affiliates here. Such familiar names to U.S. consumers as Pillsbury, Green Giant, and Alpo pet foods are owned by a British firm, Grand Metropolitan, PLC. The world's largest food processor, Nestle, based in Switzerland, operates 421 plants in 60 countries. Sixty-seven of these plants are in the United States. Burger King and Roy Rogers are now foreign-owned firms *(see box)*.

Food marketing affiliates in the United States owned by foreign firms had sales of $72.6 billion in 1988. Food manufacturing affiliates accounted for $30 billion, food wholesaling affiliates over $14 billion, and food retailing and restaurants, $28 billion.

Foreign Markets Provide Opportunities for Expansion

While many large U.S. food processing firms have gone international, most are not major exporters—especially of highly processed consumer food products. The value of U.S. exports of processed food products is large and growing—reaching $17.8 billion in 1989—but for most large food processors, exports average less than 3 percent of their total sales. Rather, the world's largest food processors continue to expand aggressively in foreign markets by increasing their investments in foreign plants or expanding licensing arrangements with foreign firms to produce and distribute their branded products. Nestle, for example, recently signed a joint venture agreement with General Mills to produce and market General Mills cereals, as well as jointly develop new brands. Philip Morris announced its acquisition of Jacobs Suchard, the largest confectionery firm in Europe, with annual sales of about $4.5 billion.

Establishing production facilities in foreign countries avoids tariff and most nontariff trade barriers. But even where trade barriers are minor, many firms apparently prefer producing in the foreign country rather than exporting. Those firms find it easier to deal with local governments and regulatory agencies when the product is produced in the host country. For consumer value-added

Table 1. U.S. and Foreign Firms Look Overseas for Expanded Markets[1]

Sector	Foreign affiliates of U.S. firms		U.S. affiliates of foreign firms	
	Sales	Assets	Sales	Assets
	Million dollars			
All food manufacturing	60,264	39,488	30,053	30,317
Meat	2,924	1,437	1,699	310
Dairy	3,941	2,150	3,938	2,005
Fruits and vegetables	3,675	2,815	D	D
Grain mill	15,117	8,167	D	D
Bakery	4,761	3,554	2,515	1,751
Beverages	11,275	8,955	7,745	13,982
Other food	18,572	12,390	11,844	9,308
Food wholesaling	10,634	4,698	14,244	3,502
Food stores, eating and drinking places	11,151	6,233	28,295	8,894
Total food marketing	82,049	50,419	72,592	42,713

D = data suppressed to avoid disclosure of data of individual companies.
[1] 1988 data.

The author is an agricultural economist with the Food Marketing and Consumption Economics Branch of the Commodity Economics Division.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 1.

continued

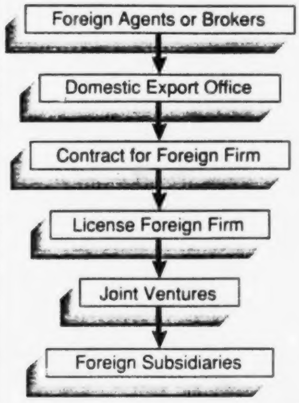
FOOD MARKETING continued

Strategies To Access International Markets

There are many strategies that firms can use to enter foreign markets. Some involve considerably more investment of time, money, and expertise than others, and greater risk. Most firms enter the export market by using foreign agents or brokers. As export sales increase, many firms set up separate export offices or divisions within their U.S. companies. U.S. processors can also package food under contract for a foreign firm. For example, several Japanese manufacturers of soda and fruit drinks contract production of their brands to American bottlers.

Firms may also choose to produce and market their branded products in foreign countries under licensing agreements with foreign firms. While this generally requires no direct investments in foreign production facilities, considerable investments are required to identify appropriate licensees, develop production and marketing procedures, and establish quality control safeguards. Joint ventures allow U.S. firms to tap into the production, marketing, and regulatory know-how of host-country firms without the expense of acquiring wholly owned subsidiaries. Finally, U.S. processors can acquire or build foreign manufacturing facilities and operate them as wholly owned subsidiaries. In actual practice, firms can use any one or all of these strategies at the same time.

Strategies for Selling in Foreign Markets



Over 50 percent of Coca-Cola's processed food sales are from their foreign subsidiaries. The Hong Kong bottling plants make many deliveries in the city. *(Photo Credit: Joe Stewardson)*

products, it is also easier to keep abreast of local tastes and opportunities for new product development or reformulations when products are produced in the foreign country.

Some firms prefer to acquire established brands in foreign countries and use those facilities as a base for further expansion. Furthermore, producing a product in a foreign plant may improve access to local food distribution firms and facilitate a variety of marketing and promotional activities involved in selling a branded consumer product.

U.S. Firms Operating Overseas

In 1988, 96 U.S. parent firms had 966 foreign food marketing affiliates with about one million employees. About 75 percent of U.S. foreign investment in food marketing was in Europe and Canada *(see box)*.

A USDA Economic Research Service data base for 64 of the largest U.S. food processing firms, which account for about half of all U.S. food processing,

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 2.

continued ⟶

FOOD MARKETING continued

Food Processing Around the World

Who are the world's largest food processing firms and where are they located? Nestle, headquartered in Switzerland, was the largest food processor in 1989. Philip Morris (Kraft General Foods), headquartered in the United States, was the second largest. Unilever, a widely diversified consumer products firm headquartered in both the United Kingdom and The Netherlands, was number three. ConAgra (U.S.) joined the top four following its recent acquisition of Beatrice Foods, and Kirin Brewery, Japan, was number five.

Of the world's 10 largest food processing firms, 7 are U.S. companies. In addition, 12 of the 20 largest, and 15 of the 25 leading food processors are U.S. firms.

World's Largest Food Processing Firms in 1989

Firm		Headquarters	Processed food sales	Total sales	Major products
			Billion dollars		
1.	Nestle	Swiss	31.0	32.0	Diversified foods, restaurants
2.	Philip Morris/Kraft General Foods	US	25.8	43.0	Foodstuffs, tobacco, beer
3.	Unilever	UK/Netherlands	17.2	34.4	Diversified foods, soaps
4.	ConAgra (includes Beatrice)[1]	US	16.0	19.0	Foodstuffs, meats, poultry
5.	Kirin Brewery	Japan	11.2	11.4	Beer, soft drinks
6.	RJR Nabisco	US	9.9	16.9	Foodstuffs, tobacco
7.	IBP	US	9.5	9.5	Meats
8.	Anheuser-Busch	US	9.3	9.7	Beer, snacks
9.	Pepsico	US	9.0	15.2	Soft drinks, snacks, restaurants
10.	Coca-Cola	US	8.5	8.9	Soft drinks, fruit juices
11.	Taiyo Fishery	Japan	8.1	9.0	Seafood products
12.	BSN	France	7.5	8.0	Snacks, bakery, beverages
13.	Archer Daniels Midland	US	7.3	7.9	Food products, grains
14.	Sara Lee	US	7.1	11.7	Frozen foods, meats
15.	Mars	US	7.0	8.0	Confectionery, pet foods
16.	Snow Brand Milk Products	Japan	6.6	6.6	Dairy products
17	Borden	US	6.5	7.6	Dairy, pasta, adhesives
18.	Hillsdown Holdings	UK	6.5	7.0	Poultry, flours, seafoods
19.	Ralston Purina	US	6.1	6.7	Food products, cereals, pet foods
20.	Bass	UK	6.1	6.1	Beverages
21.	Cargill	US	6.0	43.0	Meats, grains
22.	H.J. Heinz	US	5.9	6.0	Diversified food products
23.	Campbell Soup	US	5.8	6.0	Soups, prepared foods
24.	Elders	Australia	5.8	8.4	Beer, food products, meats
25.	Asahi Breweries	Japan	5.7	5.7	Beer

[1] ConAgra announced its acquisition of Beatrice in 1990.

gives insight into these firms' international activities. In 1988, 38 of the 64 firms owned a total of 682 food processing plants in foreign countries. These plants accounted for 26 percent of the 38 firms' sales of $154 billion in 1988. In contrast, exports of processed food from these firms amounted to only 2.6 percent of their U.S. sales.

Two companies, CPC International and Coca-Cola, sold over 50 percent of their processed food from their foreign subsidiaries. Philip Morris led U.S. food processors in sales at foreign subsidiaries, with $5.9 billion in 1988. In total, 13 U.S. food processors, including RJR Nabisco, Mars, Pepsico, Kellogg, Sara Lee, Quaker Oats, and Borden, received over $1 billion each in annual sales from their foreign subsidiaries.

Unlike the processing sector, U.S. food retailing companies are almost entirely domestic-market oriented. Safeway Stores and convenience store firms Circle K and Southland Corporation are the only U.S. food retailers with substantial investments in foreign foodstore operations. In 1988, Safeway had sales of

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 3.

continued

FOOD MARKETING continued

Table 2. U.S. Restaurants Overseas Have Grown Rapidly Since the 1970's[1]

Location	1971	1974	1976	1978	1981	1982	1984	1985	1986
	Number of restaurants								
Canada	519	860	1,047	1,196	1,220	1,172	1,591	1,542	1,869
Mexico	44	71	87	84	99	100	119	119	121
Caribbean	40	70	96	150	198	234	290	312	280
United Kingdom	63	429	433	454	442	481	567	615	608
Continental Europe	40	101	103	164	316	360	514	539	642
Australia	163	223	224	384	468	522	581	635	691
Asia	37	306	468	710	1,336	1,535	1,921	1,935	2,100
Japan	NA	265	415	590	1,106	1,259	1,490	1,436	1,548
Other	NA	41	53	120	230	276	431	499	552
Other	24	109	162	198	246	271	398	425	458
Africa	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	124	172	195	198
New Zealand	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	71	88	92	112
Central America	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	45	75	71	76
South America	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	31	63	67	72
Total	930	2,169	2,620	3,340	4,325	4,675	5,981	6,122	6,769

NA = Not available.

[1] Includes company-owned, franchisee-owned, and joint-venture establishments.

Source: *Franchising in the Economy, 1988-90*, January 1990. International Trade Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce.

over $3 billion from its 240 supermarkets in Western Canada. Circle K licenses firms to operate stores in Japan, the United Kingdom, Indonesia, Canada, and Hong Kong. Southland, operator of 7-Eleven stores, had licensing agreements covering about 4,000 stores in Japan and several other countries.

Bringing U.S. Fast Food To the World

As growth opportunities in the U.S. fast food market slowed, several large chains began tapping into foreign markets. Overall, U.S. restaurant firms now operate nearly 7,000 establishments in foreign countries, up from 900 at the start of the 1970's *(table 2)*. Kentucky Fried Chicken (a subsidiary of Pepsico, Inc.) operates 3,000 units outside the United States—about 40 percent of the total Kentucky Fried Chicken system.

About 25 percent of McDonald's 11,000 outlets are outside the United States. Major markets include Japan (700 units), Canada (600), and Germany (300). McDonald's of Canada now has an outlet in Moscow where a new 108,000-square-foot McDonald's food processing and distribution center will supply joint venture restaurants. Twenty additional McDonald's units are planned in the Moscow area.

Early in 1989, Wendy's International entered into a franchise agreement with a Saudi Arabian food company to open 30 fast food outlets along the Persian Gulf over the next 5 years.

Foreign Firms in the United States

While U.S. firms have increased their foreign investment, foreign firms have also expanded into U.S. food marketing operations. The top five in the processing sector include Nestle (Swiss) and its U.S. subsidiaries: Stouffers Food, Hills Brothers Coffee, and Carnation Food; Grand Metropolitan (U.K.): Pillsbury, Almaden, and Haagen Daz; United Biscuits (U.K.); Seagram Co. (Canada); and Allied Lyons (U.K.). Nestle and Grand Metropolitan were the only firms with sales from U.S. food processing subsidiaries over $1 billion *(table 3)*. However, 22 additional foreign companies had sales of $100 million or more from their U.S. food processing subsidiaries.

Foreign investment in the U.S. wholesale food industry totaled $3.5 billion in 1988, or 11 percent of the industry's assets. One of the five leading U.S. food wholesalers, Scrivner, Inc., is owned by Haniel et Cie of West Germany. A Canadian firm, Provigo, owns two small operations in the United States—Market Wholesale in California and Tidewater Wholesale Grocery Company in Virginia.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 4.

continued

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FOOD MARKETING continued

Table 3. Nestle Ranks First in Sales by Foreign Parents of U.S. Food Processors

Foreign parent/ country	Major U.S. subsidiaries		Total estimated U.S. sales
			Million dollars
Nestle SA-Switzerland	Nestle Foods Corp. Stouffers Food Corp. L.J. Minor Corp. Hills Bros. Coffee Co. Carnation Food Co. Wine World, Inc. Beringer Wines Co. Fresh-Nes Food Co.		1,760
Grand Metropolitan-UK	Pillsbury Green Giant Tortino's Jeno's Joan of Arc	Heubilen Almaden Christian Brothers Alpo Pet Foods Haagen-Daz	1,200
United Biscuits PLC-UK	Keebler Co. Bernardi Food Co.		900
Seagram Co. Ltd.-Canada	Tropicana Products, Inc. Seagram Co.		875
Allied Lyons PLC-UK	DCA Food Industries, Inc. Tetley Tea, Inc. Hiram Walker, Inc.		825

Foreign firms are investing in U.S. food retailing at a much faster rate than their U.S. counterparts are expanding into foreign countries. Regulations restricting the internal growth of large retailers in many foreign countries and the declining U.S. dollar in 1980-85 have encouraged foreign investment in U.S. food retailing.

Foreign firms' U.S. food store sales reached $22.1 billion in 1988. The five largest foreign parents accounted for $18.9 billion, or 86 percent of the total. Tengelmann A.G. (West Germany), which owns A&P, had the largest U.S. food store holdings in 1988. A&P's sales totaled $8.2 billion in 1988. Delhaize, Le Lion (Belgium), owner of Food Lion, ranked second with U.S. sales of $3.8 billion. Ahold International (The Netherlands) owns First National, BI-LO, and Giant Food Stores (Pennsylvania) with combined U.S. sales of $3.5 billion. George Weston, Ltd. (Canada) owns National Tea Co. with U.S. sales of $1.9 billion. Sainsbury, Ltd. (U.K.) owns Shaw's Supermarkets and Iandoli's Supermarkets with combined U.S. sales of $1.5 billion.

Other foreign-owned firms include Furr's, located in Texas with sales of $1.2 billion, owned by a West German firm, and Smitty's Super Value in Arizona, with U.S. sales of about $725 million, owned by a Canadian firm. In addition, several French firms including Euromarche, Carrefour, Promodes, Auchan, and Societe Alsacienne de Supermarches operate supermarkets in the United States. Marks and Spencer, PLC, (U.K.) entered U.S. food retailing in 1988 by acquiring Kings Super Market, Inc., in New Jersey.

Foreign Foodservice Firms Expand Into U.S. Markets

The number of U.S. restaurants owned by foreign parents took a significant jump when Grand Metropolitan, PLC, of Great Britain acquired the number two fast food chain, Burger King Corp., with the purchase of Pillsbury in 1988. Burger King had $5.8 billion in sales from nearly 6,000 units in 1989.

Late in 1989 the Marriott Corporation sold most of its Roy Rogers restaurants to Imasco, a Canadian firm, for $365 million. Imasco also owns the Hardee's, Inc., chain, which had sales of $3.3 billion through nearly 3,200 outlets in 1989.

In 1989 and 1990, Allied Lyons, PLC, acquired both the Dunkin' Donuts and Mr. Donut chains. In 1989, Dunkin' Donuts had about 1,900 units with combined sales of over $800 million. Mr. Donut operated about 800 units with sales of nearly $250 million in 1989. Allied Lyons also owns Baskin-Robbins ice cream stores with estimated sales of $693 million.

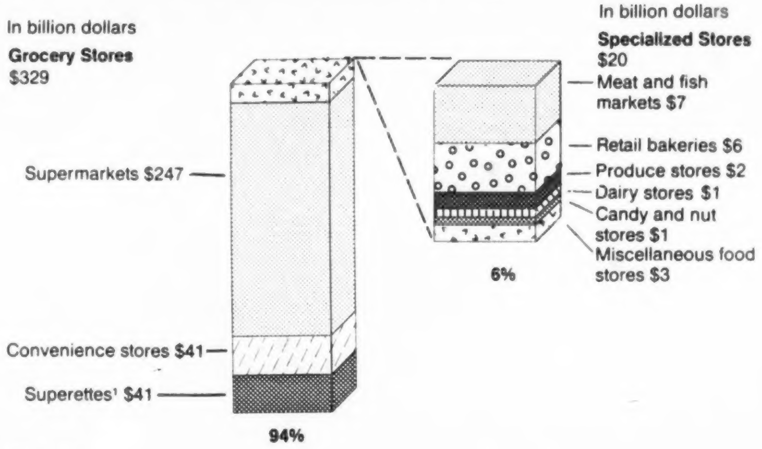
Westin Hotels and Resorts is owned by the Aoki Corporation of Japan. In 1989, Westin operated 265 units with total estimated food sales of $439 million. The Japanese firm of Seibu/Saison also recently acquired Inter-Continental Hotels Corp., from Great Britain's Grand Metropolitan, PLC. Inter-Continental operates several hotels in the United States and in 1988 had food sales of about $420 million. ■

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 5.

A FOCUS ON FOOD STORES

Retail food store sales from all types of outlets climbed to over $349 billion in 1989, 11 percent more than 1988. Supermarkets accounted for about 75 percent of the $329 billion in grocery store sales in 1989. Convenience store sales (including $15 billion from gasoline sales) reached $41 billion.

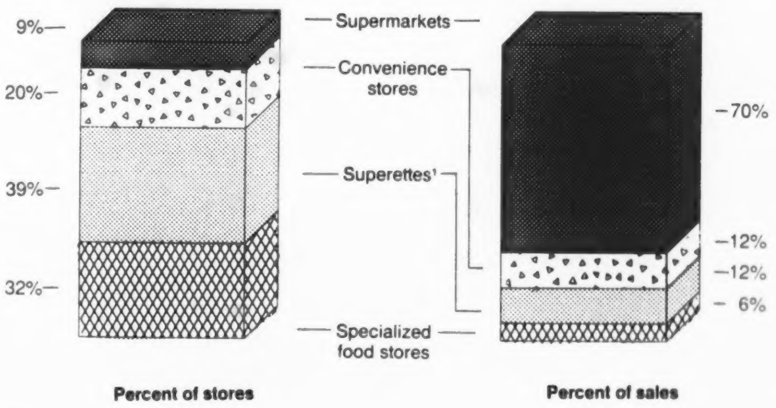
Retail Food Store Sales Reached $349 Billion in 1989



¹Grocery stores with less than $2.5 million in annual sales.
Source: *Food Marketing Review, 1989*, USDA, ERS, AER Forthcoming.

The number of retail food stores contrasts sharply with their relative sales. Supermarkets, for example, accounted for 70 percent of sales in 1988, but only 9 percent of retail food stores. Specialized food stores, such as bakery shops, produce markets, butcher shops, and fish and seafood markets, ranked second in number of establishments but had the smallest share of sales. Superettes represented 39 percent of all food stores in 1988. These outlets had many of the same departments found in supermarkets but lacked the minimum annual sales volume to qualify as supermarkets.

Supermarkets Account for Largest Share of Sales, but Smallest Share of Outlets

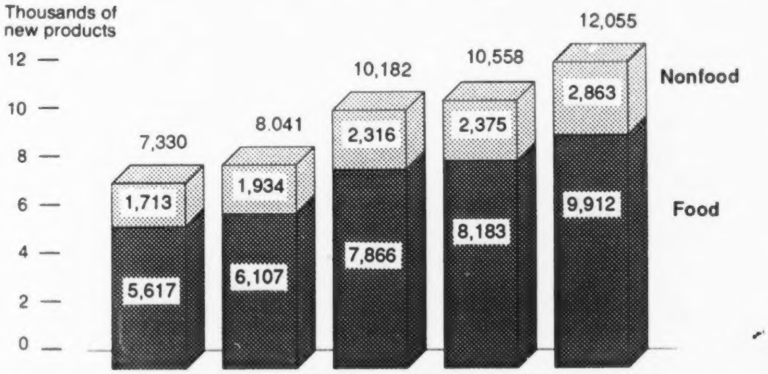


¹Grocery stores with less than $2.5 million in annual sales.
Source: *Food Marketing Review, 1989*. USDA, ERS, AER Forthcoming.

Over 12,000 new food and grocery products were introduced in 1989 (excluding new size introductions), compared with about 7,300 in 1985. About 62,000 new products were introduced between 1982 and 1989. However, even a superstore can stock only about 60,000 items. According to industry estimates, 90 to 99 percent of new products fail. Introducing a new product is very expensive, but success can be extremely profitable.

Source: Gallo, Anthony E. *The Food Marketing System in 1989*. USDA, ERS. AIB-603. May 1990.

New Product Introductions Rose About 14 Percent Between 1988 and 1989



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. National Food Review, October-December 1990. P. 38.

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SOME WHEAT FACTS

Wheat is the No. 1 food grain in the United States and in the world.

Wheat, with a farm value of $5.4 billion in 1987/88--8 percent of U.S. agricultural output value--is the fourth leading U.S. crop, following corn, soybeans, and hay.

About 30 percent of U.S. wheat supply is consumed domestically as food. Per capita use of flour increased almost 9 percent in the 1980's to 128 pounds. Retail price of white pan bread rose by 18 percent between 1980 and 1988.

The United States exports about 43 percent of its wheat supply each year.

About 352,000 farms harvested an average of 151 acres of wheat in 1987. Almost 60 percent harvested fewer than 100 acres of wheat, while 21 percent harvested over 250 acres. Wheat production is often supplementary to feed grains and cattle on a farm.

Real prices of wheat have declined since World War II, but yield increases have partially offset the decline in net returns per acre. Technological advances allow farmers to farm more acres, thereby maintaining income potential.

Total direct payments to wheat farmers--the sum of deficiency, diversion, reserve storage, disaster, and conservation reserve payments--ranged from $0.79 billion in 1981 to $3.86 billion in 1986.

Participation in the wheat program ranged from 60 percent of wheat base acres in 1984 to 87.5 percent in 1987.

Wheat production costs per acre are relatively low compared with other crops and land can be converted from idle or fallow to wheat at relatively low cost.

Winter wheat, sown in the fall, accounts for 70-80 percent of U.S. production; spring wheat, 20-30 percent.

U.S. wheat yields varied less than 6 percent year-to-year during 1980-88; corn yields varied almost 15 percent.

Sixty-eight percent of the wheat growers rented land; 75 percent of these growers owned part of the land that they farmed.

Hard red winter wheat accounted for 48 percent of the 2.1-billion-bushel 1987 crop; hard red spring, 20 percent; soft red winter, 16 percent; white, 11 percent; and durum, 4 percent.

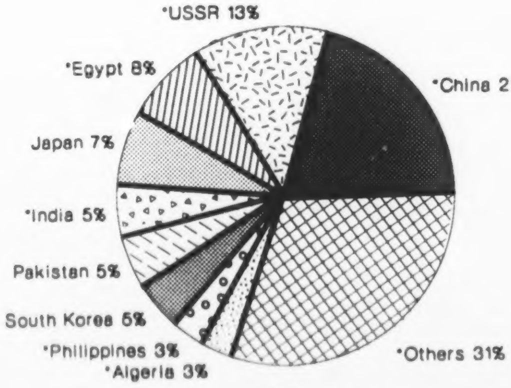
Hard red winter class wheat is mostly used for bread and flour; hard red spring for bread; soft red winter for cakes, pastries, and crackers; white for egg noodles; and durum for pasta. Each has special foreign export markets.

Wheat yields increased from 14 bushels per acre in 1930 to 31 bushels per acre in 1987. The 3-percent yearly increase is leveling off to 1-2 percent.

New varieties have added significantly to higher yields; low moisture dampens yields in hard wheat areas.

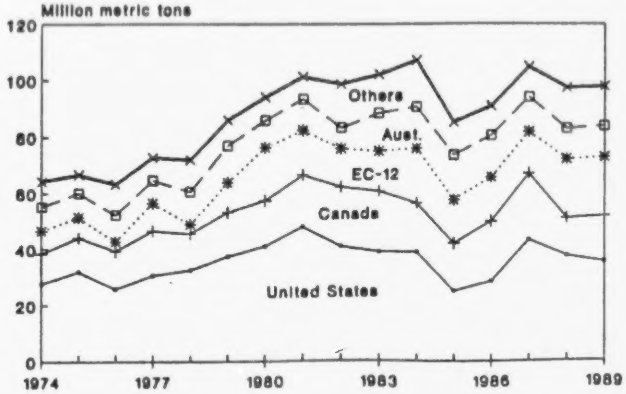
In 1987, yields in the European Community and in China exceeded U.S. yields; they grow high-yielding soft wheats.

U.S. wheat exports by destination 1988/89



• EEP recipient.

World wheat trade, 1974-89



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Bulletin No. 602. Food Grains: Background For 1990 Farm Legislation. Pp. 2&3.

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CONCERNING THE RAIN FOREST RESCUE CAMPAIGN BY THE WORLD WILDLIFE FUND

The following material has been excerpted with permission from WWF's brochure on its Rain Forest Rescue Campaign. They advise that "When you contribute to WWF's Rain Forest Rescue Campaign, you'll be joining a million other concerned Americans as our newest member. As a WWF member, you'll receive frequent updates and progress reports about the forest protection programs that your contribution helps make possible.
"We'll alert you to emerging threats to the world's wildlands and wildlife. And we'll let you know when we think your signature on a petition or a postcard can help make the difference on a critical conservation issue."

To join, send $15 or more to: WWF Rain Forest Rescue Campaign, Dept. ZF21, 1250 Twenty-Fourth Street, NW Washington DC 20037, or phone 1-800-CALL-WWF.

A Matter of Life and Death

Forest peoples on three continents have made the tropics their home for thousands of years. Until recently, they lived free from population pressures and outside threats to their forest homes, their livelihoods—and their lives.

They and all of us may ultimately depend on rain forests for our survival. Tropical forests generate vital rainfall, regulate the supply and flow of great rivers and prevent devastating floods and droughts. They even help stabilize global climate patterns by absorbing carbon dioxide that would otherwise be released into the atmosphere, fueling global warming.

The Price of Destruction

Tropical forests have immense untapped potential to alleviate human suffering, improve living standards and counteract damage to the global environment. They are the planet's insurance policy against loss, disease, and death.

Yet every hour of every day, we bulldoze, log, and burn hundreds of acres of rain forest off the face of the earth in the name of progress and short-term profits, obliterating them forever. In the process, we permanently destroy the habitats of endangered wildlife and the livelihoods of forest peoples, snuff out entire species, choke the atmosphere and hasten global warming, which could transform major crop-producing regions of the world into dustbowls.

In the past four decades, we have destroyed two-fifths of the world's original rain forest cover—tropical forests that had managed to survive even the greatest global cataclysms, including ice ages. Wild plants and animals that have been evolving for millions of years will be lost during the lifetime of children born today.

At current deforestation rates—estimated at 80 acres per minute—we may annihilate 20% of the earth's plant and animal species by the year 2000. Such wholesale destruction of one of the planet's critical life-support systems would be a tragedy without measure. In addition to generating a wave of extinction unequaled since the disappearance of the dinosaurs more than 60 million years ago, the deliberate squandering of developing nations' natural riches may trigger massive social, economic, and political upheavals that will have serious consequences for us all.

Although rain forests cover less than seven percent of the earth's surface, ninety percent of all known plant and animal species live nowhere else.

The lavish number of animal species concentrated in small areas of rain forest staggers the imagination. Manu National Park, for example, in the Peruvian tropics is home to more kinds of birds than are found in the entire United States.

To many of us, the rain forests of the tropics seem exotic, remote, unconnected to our daily lives. But we rely on them every day in hundreds of ways.

Half of the grains that feed the world are descended from plants found in the tropics, and rain forests are yet untapped sources of food crops that we will someday need to supplement or replace those lost to disease and drought.

Tropical plants supply ingredients for hundreds of medicines prescribed in the U.S. to treat malaria, dysentery, glaucoma, childhood leukemia, and dozens of other illnesses and diseases. Many scientists believe that tropical plants may hold the key to cures for cancer, heart disease, and AIDS.

Raw materials that fuel our industries, wood for our houses and furniture, fabrics for our clothing, and many of the foods and seasonings we enjoy all come from the tropics.

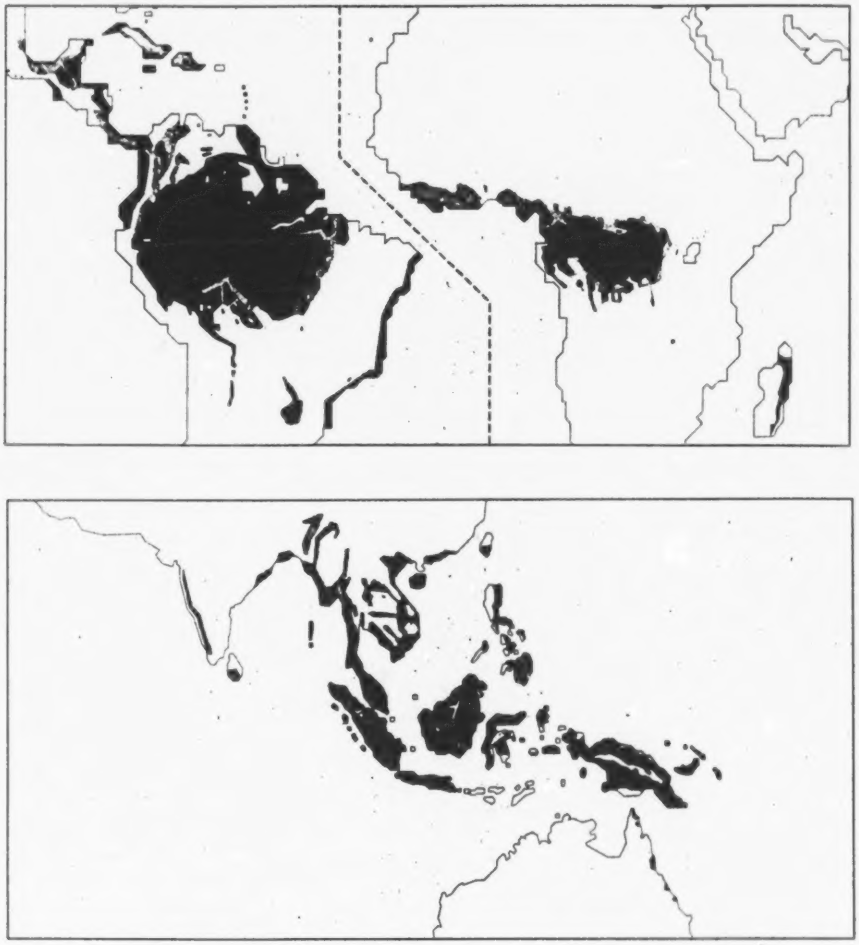
MORE ON TROPICAL FORESTS

Tropical forests cover 14% of the earth's land surface and are located between the Tropics of Capricorn and Cancer. There are two main types:

Tropical moist forest is evergreen and broadleaved. It has a closed canopy, so that the crowns of its trees touch each other. There are numerous categories of moist forest including rainforest. Tropical moist forests contain an exceptionally high number of plant and animal species. A little over half of the world's remaining tropical moist forest is in Latin America, a fifth in Africa and a quarter in Southeast Asia.

Tropical dry forest often has an open canopy and may shed its leaves during its driest season. Tropical dry forest does not have as many species as moist forest, but is still highly diverse. Trees in dry forest tend to be smaller than those in moist forest and more shrubby in appearance. Two-thirds of the world's dry forest are found in Africa (although much degraded), just under a third in Latin America and the remainder in the Asia-Pacific region.

The World Wildlife Fund



The world's tropical forests originally covered 1.6 billion hectares. They now grow on around 1.1 billion hectares.

▨ **Current distribution**

■ **Originally forested area, but now deforested or degraded**

Source: Earthscan Publications, Limited. Saving the Tropical Forests, Judith Gradwohl and Russell Greenberg, 1988. Reprinted here with permission.

OPINION

A UNIVERSITY PANEL DISCUSSES THE THIRD WORLD'S TROPICAL FORESTS

Halting the destruction of tropical forests is the developing world's most pressing environmental concern, agreed Harvard experts at a Feb. 13 panel discussion.

Price adjustments, new agricultural technologies, and grassroots activist movements were some of the solutions suggested by the panel, which included a resource economist, an anthropologist, a dendrologist, and a public health expert.

The discussion was moderated by C. Peter Timmer, Thomas D. Cabot Professor of Development Studies, and was the third in a series organized by the Harvard Working Group on Environment and cosponsored by the Northeast Regional Center for Global Environmental Change.

According to economist Jeffrey Vincent, an Institute associate in the Harvard Institute for International Development (HIID), Third World deforestation results from the fact that in most developing nations fees for harvesting timber are set too low, encouraging unrestrained cutting of forests.

"In most of these countries, timber companies are in a position to prevent increases in government charges and maintain the timber sector as a source of political spoils," Vincent said.

Under pressure from powerful logging companies, Third World governments have set fees for cutting timber 10 to 30 percent below their real value.

As a result, Vincent said, "governments have disengaged the price/scarcity mechanism" that protects forests in wealthier countries.

In Europe and North America, logging operations have continued unchecked only until timber scarcity has forced companies to manage forests more carefully. At the same time, rising wood prices have prompted manufacturers to find substitute materials.

In the United States and Europe, Vincent said, forests have stabilized or even increased in area since the early part of the century and the demand for wood products has remained roughly the same.

"But in developing nations, the signals aren't sent, and, as a result, no one invests in forest management," Vincent said.

"These countries need policies that recognize the full range and magnitude of values provided by forests, and they need prices that reflect these values," he said.

These values include such things as watershed protection, wildlife habitat, and genetic resources, which are not necessarily reflected in the marketplace but which are very important to prosperity and growth.

"It's easy to make a case for conservation when the timber is all gone. What's harder is to make the case persuasively before it's too late," Vincent said.

According to anthropologist Ricardo Godoy, research associate in HIID, "getting the prices right" is only part of the solution to deforestation. The other part of the equation is helping Third World people grow basic crops more efficiently, thus reducing their need to cut down forests for quick profits.

""My solution is to develop new agricultural technology, especially to lower the price of basic staples. This has a large multiplier effect and it helps the poor more than it does the rich," Godoy said.

Such investments have not generally been made because policymakers see farmers primarily as a consumption group rather than a sector that generates growth, Godoy said. Also, investments made in basic agriculture typically take 10 to 12 years to show results, and most Third World governments are unwilling to plan so far in the future.

Godoy said that places like Harvard have an important role to play in educating policymakers about the importance of investing in agricultural technology.

According to Dendrology Professor Peter Ashton, industrialized nations derive the greatest benefit from the biodiversity of tropical forests in the form of chemicals and pharmaceuticals. Therefore the responsibility for maintaining that biodiversity should logically fall to these countries.

Third World peoples themselves benefit more by growing mixed species crops which reproduce the natural diversity of the tropical forests. These would include such crops as palm oil, rubber, and cocoa.

Rather than cut down forests to raise food crops, Third World growers would do better to limit this type of agriculture to the 10 percent of fertile land where it is possible to regulate the water supply.

Tropical forests can also be managed for timber growing, Ashton said, but this too is incompatible with maintaining biodiversity. The many interdependent species which make up tropical forests cannot survive the intrusion of heavy machinery used in logging operations.

"If development in Third World countries is successful, the people will have less and less use for tropical forests. The onus will come back on us in the industrialized nations who have extracted so many chemicals and pharmaceuticals from these forests," Ashton said.

Lincoln Chen, Taro Takemi Professor of International Health at the School of Public Health, said that 15 years' experience working in India and Bangladesh has caused him to see the problems of developing nations in practical, human terms.

According to Chen, these problems have to do with the struggle for basic necessities such as food, fuel, fodder, clean drinking water, and health services. Often it is the poor themselves who are most successful in articulating their needs.

"Many issues come to the fore because of social activism, not scholarship of government policymaking," he said.

Chen described the example of the grassroots Chipko movement that began in 1973 when Indian village women stopped a contractor from cutting down local ash trees by hugging the trunks and preventing the foresters from using their axes. The incident blossomed into an international environmentalist movement to protect the resource base of the rural poor.

"It is debatable whether it is the poor who are degrading the environment on which they so critically depend or whether it is the consumption forces external to that environment," said Chen.

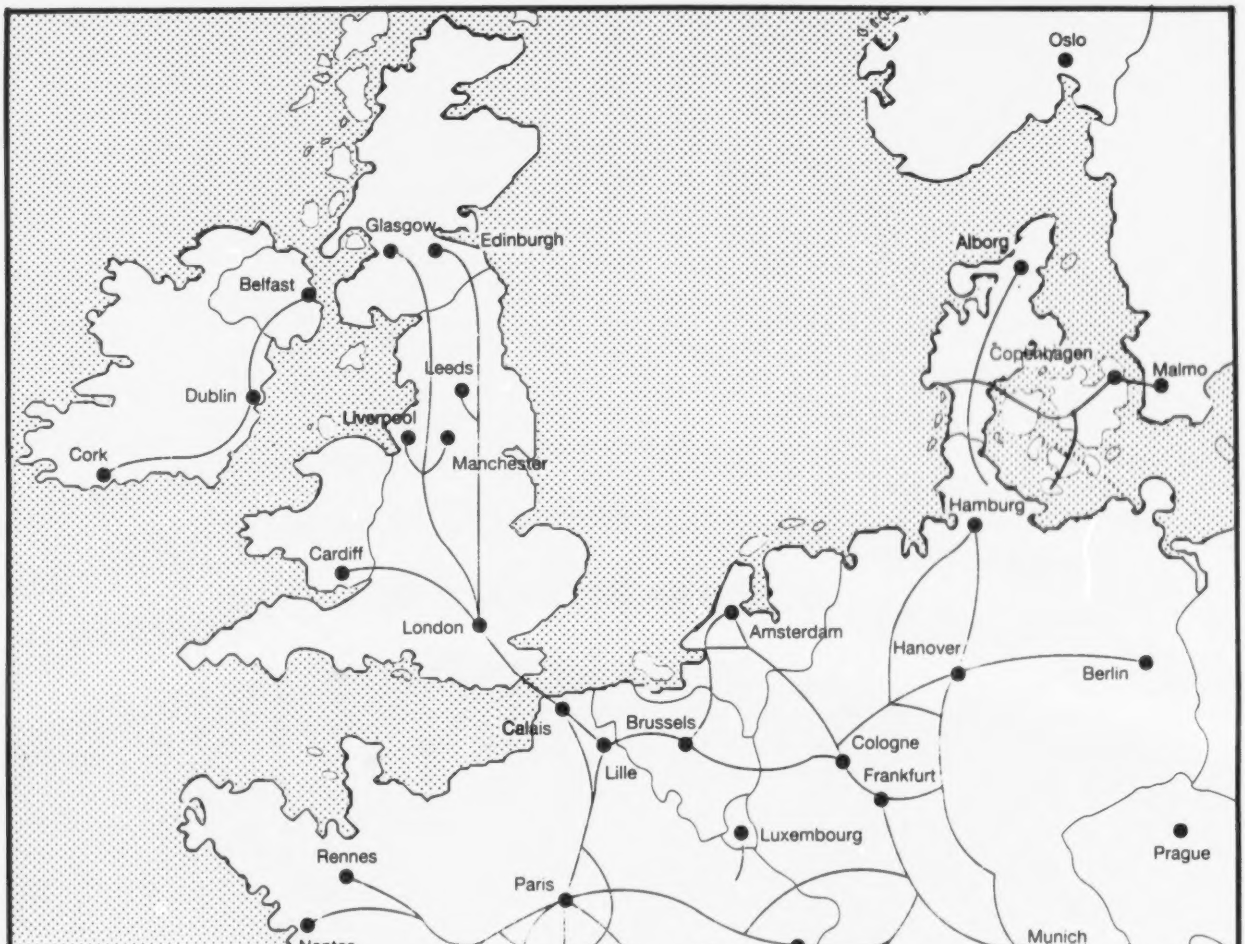
Chen also described the Sukhomajri project in which Himalayan villagers banded together to solve an erosion problem that was threatening their way of life.

"These problems are not the result of huge, impersonal macro forces that groups cannot do anything about," Chen said.

"Action must take place locally because what takes place at the global level is simply the aggregation of what happens in places like Sukhomajri."

Source: Harvard (University) Gazette. February 22, 1991. P. 3. Reprinted with permission.

FUTURE EUROPEAN HIGH-SPEED RAIL NETWORK


Oslo
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Belfast
Alborg
Copenhagen
Malmo
Leeds
Dublin
Liverpool
Manchester
Cork
Hamburg
Cardiff
London
Amsterdam
Hanover
Berlin
Calais
Brussels
Lille
Cologne
Frankfurt
Luxembourg
Prague
Rennes
Paris
Nantes
Strasbourg
Munich
Vienna
Salzburg
Dijon
Zurich
Innsbruck
Bern
Villach
Bordeaux
Limoges
Clermont-Ferrand
Geneva
Bilbao
Lyon
Milan
Venice
Bologna
Marseille
Perpignan
Barcelona
Madrid
Rome

Note
This diagram includes existing high-speed lines and lines planned to be in place by 2005

Source: Euro Tunnel Rights Issue. November 1990.
Reprinted with permission.

TV MARTÍ

Excerpts From The Special Report (to President George Bush, January 1991) By the Advisory Board For Cuba Broadcasting

> **José Martí (1853-1895), Cuban patriot and precursor of The Modernist movement in Spanish literature. He came to be revered in many countries as an "apostle" of Hispanic-American nationalism.**
>
> Encyclopedia Americana

On August 26, 1990, President Bush officially ended the five month test period of TV Marti by signing a Presidential Determination that the project is both feasible and does not cause harmful interference to domestic broadcasters. The Advisory Board for Cuba Broadcasting concurs with the President's decision and appreciates the ongoing support of the President and Congress for both Radio and TV Marti as worthy foreign policy tools designed to encourage freedom and democracy in Cuba.

USIA's role in the "shortwave revolution" spurring democratic reforms throughout Eastern Europe is already well known. Radio Marti carries on that proud tradition for its sixth year of broadcasting to Cuba and is generally recognized as the most popular radio station on the island. TV Marti is a natural follow-on to Radio Marti's success, adding powerful images of a world in transition to a society denied access to uncensored news and information. The Advisory Board wants to emphasize the fact that many of the technical aspects of the TV Marti project are unprecedented in American broadcast history. For that reason, a comprehensive criterion of success has not been easily developed for TV Marti, largely because there is little to which the project can be compared. As an instrument of American public diplomacy, however, TV Marti is confronted with the same obstacles which have historically plagued Voice of America (VOA) broadcasts to 'denied countries' since the end of World War II -- attempted jamming, threats of retaliation in the form of counter-broadcasting, and controversy over audience levels.

This report is intended to provide the President and Members of Congress a brief overview of how and why the President's Advisory Board for Cuba Broadcasting has judged Television Marti a success both technically and in terms of American foreign policy., The Advisory Board is confident that TV Marti will be viewed in years to come as a watershed event in the history of American public diplomacy and will itself be regarded as a standard of success for future endeavors like it.

In order to appreciate the impact of USIA's Cuba Broadcasting effort, the Advisory Board feels that it is important to understand the environment in which its broadcasts to Cuba are being delivered. Since 1959, the foundation of the Cuban Revolution has been based primarily on moral incentives and ideology imported from abroad and awkwardly imposed on the masses by an elitist regime. For precisely that reason, ideological disarray in the Soviet Union is especially damaging. Cuba now finds itself in a situation in which its political philosophy is being repudiated by its own creators.

In any society, objective truth is the foundation of credibility. It is the suppression of truth that makes its dissemination so powerful. For that reason the Cuban revolution is vulnerable to the "poison" of uncensored news and information. In short, truth in Cuba is subversive. The fact that Radio and TV Marti are able to facilitate, amplify and accelerate the internal decay of the Castro regime is primarily a function of the environment into which they broadcast.

> "It is better to die than deviate from the path of Cuban communism. Cuba would rather sink into the sea than take down the banner of revolution and socialism."
>
> Fidel Castro,
> January 1, 1990

Advisory Board for Cuba Broadcasting,
400 6th Street NW, Room 3850, Washington
DC 20547. Phone (202) 401-7312.

continued →

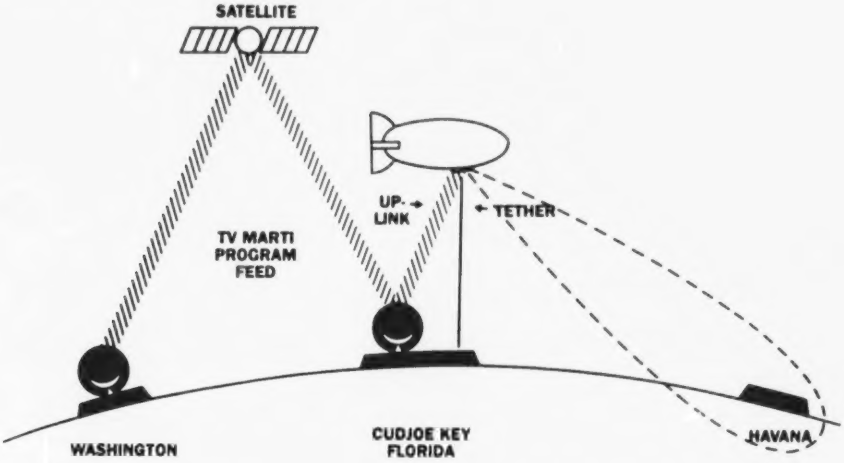
TV MARTÍ continued

CUBA
Atlantic Ocean
Caribbean Sea
PINAR DEL RIO
Pinar del Rio
Isla de la Juventud
HAVANA
Havana
Matanzas
MATANZAS
CIENFUEGOS
Cienfuegos
Santa Clara
VILLA CLARA
Sancti Spiritus
SANCTI SPIRITUS
CIEGO DE AVILA
Ciego de Avila
CAMAGUEY
Camaguey
Victoria de las Tunas
LAS TUNAS
Holguin
HOLGUIN
Bayamo
GRANMA
SANTIAGO DE CUBA
Santiago de Cuba
GUANTANAMO
Baracca

"The great upheavals which precede changes of civilization, such as the fall of the Roman Empire and the foundation of the Arabian Empire, seem at first sight determined more especially by political transformations, foreign invasion, or the overthrow of dynasties. But a more attentive study of these events shows that behind their apparent causes the real cause is generally seen to be a profound modification in the ideas of the peoples. the true historical upheavals are not those which astonish us by their grandeur and violence. The only important changes whence the renewal of civilizations results, affect ideas, conceptions and beliefs. The memorable events of history are the visible effects of the invisible changes of human thought."

Gustav Le Bon
The Crowd - 1895

TV MARTÍ Aerostat Based Broadcast System


SATELLITE
TV MARTI PROGRAM FEED
UP-LINK
TETHER
WASHINGTON
CUDJOE KEY FLORIDA
HAVANA

"The continuous, frank, and almost brutal debate of open political life strengthens in man the habit of expressing his opinion and listening to that of others. There is great benefit in living in a country where the active coexistence of diverse beliefs prevents that timorous and indecisive state to which reason descends where a single and unquestionable dogma prevails."

José Martí

PUBLIC ATTITUDES ON GOVERNMENTS AND TAXES

The material on the next three pages has been excerpted from the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations 34-page Survey, "Changing Public Attitudes on Governments and Taxes," S-19, 1990. Pp. 1,5, 6, & 8.

The 1990 Survey Highlights

Major findings from the U.S. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations May 1990 poll on changing attitudes on government and taxes include the following:

- As in every year since 1972, citizens were asked, "Which do you think is the worst tax—that is, the least fair?" The 1990 responses show the *local property tax as least fair (28 percent)* for the second year in a row, *followed very closely by the federal income tax (26 percent)*. In 1989, the percentages were 32 for the property tax and 27 for the federal income tax (28 percent and 21 percent when Social Security was included).
- Asked for the second year to identify the government from which they get the least for their money, *41 percent* of the respondents *picked the federal government. State government was chosen by 26 percent and local government by 21 percent* of those questioned. Last year, 36 percent selected the federal government and 25 percent each chose state and local governments as providing the least for their money.
- The question regarding trust and confidence in governments to handle six problems elicited responses showing a clear choice for three of the problems and choices divided more evenly among the federal, state, and local governments for the other three. Respondents *clearly trust the federal government most to attract foreign investment and trade (58 percent) and to provide services to immigrants (60 percent)*, and *state government most to maintain the nation's highways and bridges (57 percent)*. By much *smaller percentages, respondents trust the federal government to handle health care for the disabled, poor, and elderly (36 percent), and state government most to provide child care (34 percent) and job training (37 percent)*. Respondents' *trust in local government is 29 percent for handling child care and 23 percent for job training.*
- A first-time question in 1990 was, "Overall, how would you grade the performance of each of the following governments?" Most Americans appear to be moderately satisfied with state, local, and federal governments' performance, giving each government an average grade of "C."
    - *High marks* ("excellent" or "good") for overall performance were given *to local government by 32 percent* of those polled, and *to the federal and state governments by 29 percent each.*
    - Ratings of *unsatisfactory or failure were given to the federal government by 23 percent* of the respondents; *20 percent rated state government as unsatisfactory or a failure, and 19 percent picked local government.*
- In another first-time question, respondents were asked, "Overall, how would you grade the ability of the federal, state, and local governments to cooperate and work together?" Again, *all three* governments fared pretty well, with *a solid plurality (40 percent local to 43 percent state and federal) giving a "satisfactory" rating. Twenty-nine percent rated local government's ability* to cooperate and work with other governments *as "excellent" or "good,"* *compared to 27 percent for state government and 24 percent for the federal government.*

Detailed results of the survey include data for each of the following categories:

Total Public

Male
Female

Head of Household
    Male Head
    Female Head

Under 35 Years of Age
    18-24
    25-34
35-44
45-65
Over 65

High School Incomplete
High School Graduate
College Incomplete
College Graduate

Household Income: Under $15K
    $15-24.9K
    $25K+
    $25-29.9K
    $30-39.9K
$40K+

Own
Rent

White
Black

Employed
    Employed Female
Not Employed
    Not Employed Female

Professional, Manager, Owner
White Collar, Sales, Clerical
Blue Collar

Retired
Married
Not Married

Household Size: 1-2 People
    3-4 People
    5+ People

Children in Household: Under 18
    No Children

Northeast
North-Central
South
West

Nonmetro
Metro: 50000 and Over
    Fringe
    Central City

continued →

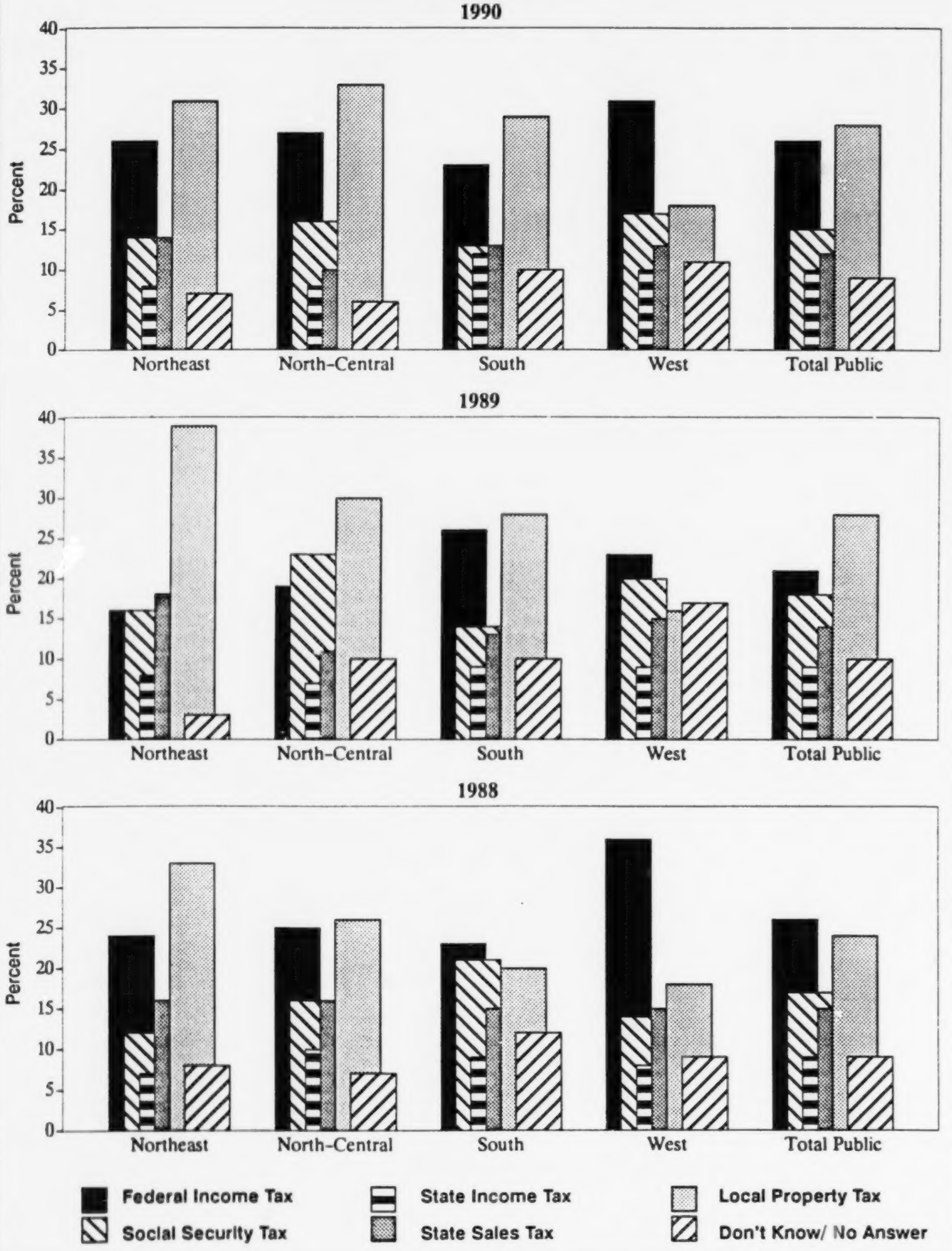
PUBLIC ATTITUDES continued

Tabular data for this chart is at top of next page.

Figure 2

Which Do You Think is the Worst Tax—That is, the Least Fair: Federal Income Tax, Social Security Tax, State Income Tax, State Sales Tax, or Local Property Tax?

(by region, percent)



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PUBLIC ATTITUDES continued

Table 3

1990

**Which Do You Think is the Worst Tax—That is, the Least Fair:
Federal Income Tax, Social Security Tax, State Income Tax, State Sales Tax, or Local Property Tax?**

(by region, percent)

	Federal Income Tax	Social Security Tax	State Income Tax	State Sales Tax	Local Property Tax	Don't Know/ No Answer
Northeast	26	14	8	14	31	7
North-Central	27	16	8	10	33	6
South	23	13	12	13	29	10
West	31	17	10	13	18	11
Total Public	26	15	10	12	28	9

1989

	Federal Income Tax	Social Security Tax	State Income Tax	State Sales Tax	Local Property Tax	Don't Know/ No Answer
Northeast	16	16	8	18	39	3
North-Central	19	23	7	11	30	10
South	26	14	9	13	28	10
West	23	20	9	15	16	17
Total Public	21	18	9	14	28	10

1988

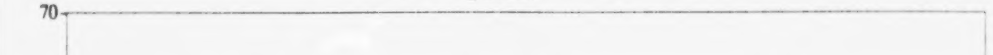
	Federal Income Tax	Social Security Tax	State Income Tax	State Sales Tax	Local Property Tax	Don't Know/ No Answer
Northeast	24	12	7	16	33	8
North-Central	25	16	10	16	26	7
South	23	21	9	15	20	12
West	36	14	8	15	18	9
Total Public	26	17	9	15	24	9

Figure 4

1990

To the Extent that Government May Be Involved, in which Level of Government Do You Have the Most Trust and Confidence to Handle Each of the Following Problem Most Effectively. . . ?

(percent)



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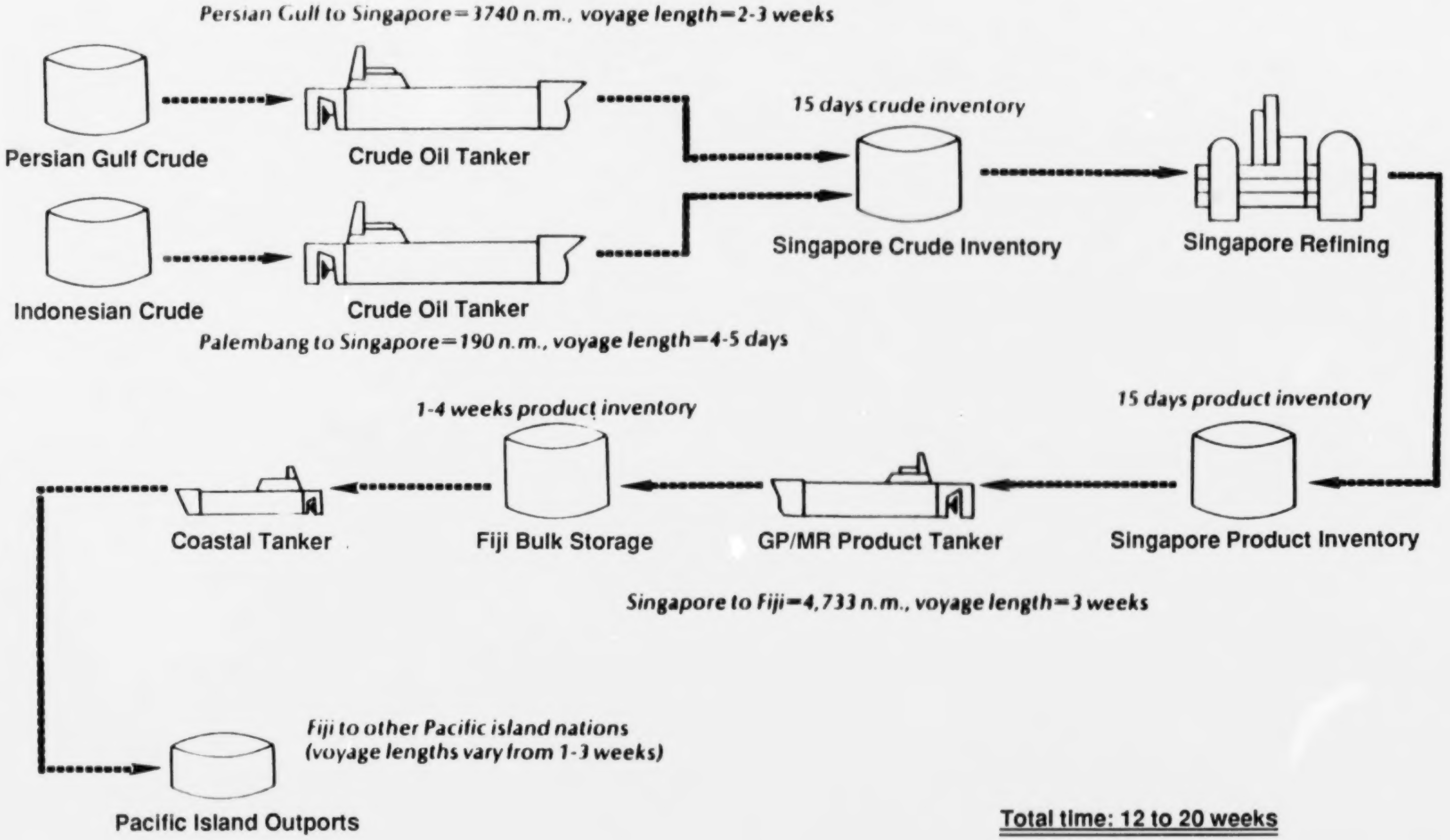
AN EXAMPLE OF TIME BUILD-UP FOR DELIVERY OF PETROLEUM PRODUCTS


Persian Gulf to Singapore=3740 n.m., voyage length=2-3 weeks
Persian Gulf Crude
Crude Oil Tanker
15 days crude inventory
Singapore Crude Inventory
Singapore Refining
Indonesian Crude
Crude Oil Tanker
Palembang to Singapore=190 n.m., voyage length=4-5 days
1-4 weeks product inventory
15 days product inventory
Coastal Tanker
Fiji Bulk Storage
GP/MR Product Tanker
Singapore Product Inventory
Singapore to Fiji=4,733 n.m., voyage length=3 weeks
Fiji to other Pacific island nations
(voyage lengths vary from 1-3 weeks)
Pacific Island Outports

Total time: 12 to 20 weeks

Source: United Nations. Energy Resources Development Series No. 32. Background Issues of Oil Supply Trading in Pacific Island Countries. P. 17.

WHAT 8TH GRADERS STUDY (IN THE HUMANITIES) AND HOW MUCH OF IT THEY DO

This article is part of a series deriving from statistical studies supported by NEH.

YOUNG STUDENTS' exposure to the humanities begins in earnest upon their leaving elementary school and entering the transitional stage of middle school or junior high school. It is here that elementary education's emphasis on social studies and language arts begins to give way to the study of history, literature, and languages as distinct academic disciplines.

What do we know about students' experience with the humanities at this level? Until recently, not much. With the 1990 publication of *A Profile of the American Eighth Grader* and its companion studies, however, data are now available on the attitudes and academic experiences of eighth-grade students, as are supporting data from the students' parents, teachers, and school principals. The report results from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, a project undertaken by the U.S. Department of Education with supplemental support from the National Endowment for the Humanities and the National Science Foundation. Following are selected findings from this study.

Course-Taking Patterns

The academic requirements of schools in different areas of the nation usually define the courses that eighth graders in those areas may take. However, a look at these curricular frameworks nationwide reveals a wide variety of course-taking patterns, with distinctions often emerging within subject areas and among schools of various types and locations.

For instance, nearly one-quarter of all eighth graders study a foreign language. Chart 1 shows that students in the Northeast are more than twice as likely to take foreign language courses as students in other parts of the country, that students in urban or suburban schools are nearly twice as likely to take a language as their peers in rural schools, and that

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Jeffrey Thomas is the assistant director for humanities studies in the Office of Planning and Budget.

CHART 1: Percent of 1988 eighth graders who report taking specified humanities courses by selected characteristics

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS	ENGLISH			FOREIGN LANGUAGE	HISTORY/SOCIAL STUDIES				RELIGION
	Regular English	Remedial English	No English		History only	Social Studies only	History & Social Studies	No History/ Social Studies	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
TOTAL	83.7	12.1	4.2	24.1	25.6	23.0	47.2	4.3	17.6
Geographic Region									
Northeast	84.5	12.3	3.1	49.6	14.9	31.2	50.9	2.9	23.5
North central	84.3	12.2	3.5	19.5	25.9	24.6	47.1	2.3	21.3
South	85.0	9.9	5.1	15.4	32.1	18.8	43.1	6.0	12.1
West	79.7	15.8	4.5	20.1	24.3	19.9	50.8	5.1	16.3
Urbanicity									
Urban	81.4	13.7	4.9	29.6	23.6	23.6	47.0	5.8	24.6
Suburban	83.9	12.4	3.7	27.2	25.5	21.5	49.6	3.4	19.2
Rural	85.3	10.4	4.3	15.6	27.3	24.5	44.0	4.2	9.9
School Type									
Public	84.6	11.0	4.4	23.5	26.4	23.5	45.4	4.6	8.6
Catholic	73.4	23.4	3.2	16.2	12.7	19.3	65.7	2.3	92.5
Independent private	85.4	13.7	0.9	87.8	33.7	20.3	44.1	2.2	22.1
Other private	83.2	15.0	1.8	37.0	31.1	17.4	50.2	1.3	69.1
Sex									
Male	81.6	13.8	4.6	23.8	25.1	21.8	48.3	4.8	16.5
Female	85.3	10.4	3.8	24.4	26.1	24.0	46.1	3.8	18.6
Race/Ethnicity									
Asian	81.3	14.2	4.4	37.5	18.4	17.4	58.0	6.1	19.3
Hispanic	76.4	17.3	6.3	19.5	24.0	18.6	51.4	6.0	16.4
Black	80.7	11.3	8.0	21.5	23.5	25.7	43.0	7.8	12.1
White	85.6	11.3	3.1	24.7	26.7	23.4	46.7	3.2	18.7
Native American	75.1	15.7	9.2	19.6	17.6	22.6	52.7	7.1	13.3

NOTE: *Because of rounding of numbers, individual percentages may not always total 100 percent.*
SOURCE: *U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988: Base Year Student Survey."*

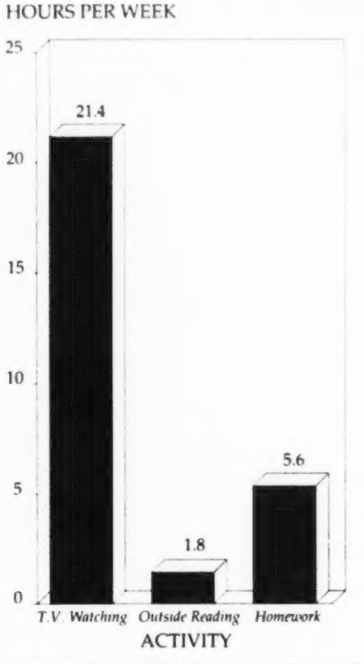
Source: National Endowment for the Humanities.
Humanities, November/December 1990. P.9.

8TH GRADERS continued

students in independent private schools are vastly more likely to take a language than students in public or Catholic schools. Almost nine in ten eighth graders in independent private schools reported taking a language course.

A high percentage of students in virtually all school settings takes remedial English—one in eight students nationally, and almost one in four students in Catholic schools.

Chart 2: Average hours per week spent on various activities



Source: U. S. Dept. of ED, NELS: 88, Base Year

Chart 3: Time students spend on English and social studies homework each week

	English	Social Studies
None	10.1%	12.8%
Less than 1 hour	43.6	39.1
1 hour	21.1	21.6
2 hours	9.7	10.4
3 hours	5.4	5.7
4-6 hours	3.6	3.6
7-9 hours	0.8	1.0
10 or more hours	0.3	0.4

Chart 4: Emphasis teachers give to English topics

	Major topic	Minor topic	Review only	Not covered
Composition	76.3%	21.9%	1.2%	0.6%
Grammar	74.6	19.5	5.5	0.4
Literature	57.9	27.7	3.6	10.8
Reading	43.7	33.0	11.7	11.6
Spelling	41.2	41.5	12.6	4.6
Study Skills	18.6	45.2	29.7	6.4

Chart 5: Frequency of teachers' use of literary genres in making assignments to their students

	Majority of time	Some of time	Rarely	Never
Fiction	45.6%	43.2%	5.1%	6.0%
Expository Text	9.4	47.3	30.4	12.8
Drama	5.1	57.4	24.6	13.0
Biography	4.9	59.4	24.5	11.2
Poetry	4.1	55.6	31.0	9.4
Mythology/Folktales	3.3	45.7	32.0	19.0
Other Non-fiction	4.9	52.7	30.8	11.6

The Dominance of TV

Television viewing dominates the out-of-school time of most eighth graders: The average number of hours per week spent watching television is 21.4, almost four times the number of hours spent on homework and twelve times the number of hours spent on outside reading (*Chart 2*). Seventy percent of students reported that their parents rarely or never limited the amount of time they could spend watching TV. More than half of the students reported spending less than one hour per week on homework in English and in social studies classes (*Chart 3*).

In responding to questions about their educational and occupational plans, eighth graders tended to aim high—nearly two-thirds expect to finish college and a third aspire to careers in professional, business, or managerial occupations.

What English Teachers Assign

When asked how much emphasis they give to various types of instruction, eighth-grade English teachers most often listed composition as their primary focus, followed in descending order by grammar, literature, reading, spelling, and study skills (*Chart 4*). These teachers had an overwhelming preference for fiction in making their assignments, with all other forms of literature trailing distantly (*Chart 5*). One in five English teachers did not require their students to read any books outside their textbook.

Parental Participation

Parents of eighth graders indicated a high level of interest in their children's activities. Slightly less than half reported that they go to history museums with their children, and almost 90 percent reported that they enforce family rules about homework. Even so, one in three reported that they "seldom or never" helped their eighth grader with his or her homework. □

Source: National Endowment for the Humanities.
Humanities, November/December 1990. P.10.

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GOALS ADOPTED BY THE WORLD SUMMIT FOR CHILDREN, SEPTEMBER 1990

The following has been excerpted (pages 1-3) from the 128-page UNICEF report, The State of the World's Children 1991. Readers are referred also to World Eagle, December 1990, p. 14.

On Sunday, September 30th, 1990, a great promise was made to the children of the 1990s. On that day, 71 Presidents and Prime Ministers came together for the first World Summit for Children. It was the largest gathering of heads of state and government in history. And the outcome was an extraordinary new commitment -- a decision to try to end child deaths and child malnutrition on today's scale by the year 2000 -- and to provide basic protection for the normal physical and mental development of all the world's children.

This overall goal was broken down into more than 20 specific targets listed in the Plan of Action agreed on by the 159 nations represented at the Summit. All governments will review their plans and budgets and decide on national programmes of action before the end of 1991.

Two principal facts dominated the World Summit for Children.

- The first was the fact of the quiet catastrophe -- the 40,000 child deaths each day from ordinary malnutrition and disease, the 150 million children who live in ill health and poor growth, the 100 million 6 to 11-year-olds who are not in school.
- The second was the fact that the means of ending this quiet catastrophe are now both available and affordable. Large-scale trials and studies in many nations in recent years have vastly increased both the world's understanding of the problems and its capacity to solve them.

The question at the centre of the World Summit was therefore whether morality would keep step with capacity, whether what could now be done would now be done.

The following is the full list of goals, to be attained by the year 2000, which were adopted by the World Summit for Children on September 30th 1990. After widespread consultation among governments and the agencies of the United Nations, these targets were considered to be feasible and financially affordable over the course of the decade ahead.

Overall goals 1990-2000

○ A one-third reduction in under-five death rates (or a reduction to below 70 per 1,000 live births - whichever is less).

○ A halving of maternal mortality rates.

○ A halving of severe and moderate malnutrition among the world's under-fives.

○ Safe water and sanitation for all families.

○ Basic education for all children and completion of primary education by at least 80%.

○ A halving of the adult illiteracy rate and the achievement of equal educational opportunity for males and females.

○ Protection for the many millions of children in especially difficult circumstances and the acceptance and observance, in all countries, of the recently adopted *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. In particular, the 1990s should see rapidly growing acceptance of the idea of special protection for children in time of war.

Protection for girls and women

○ Family planning education and services to be made available to all couples to empower them to prevent unwanted pregnancies and births which are 'too many and too close' and to women who are 'too young or too old'.

○ All women to have access to pre-natal care, a trained attendant during childbirth and referral for high-risk pregnancies and obstetric emergencies.

○ Universal recognition of the special health and nutritional needs of females during early childhood, adolescence, pregnancy and lactation.

Nutrition

○ A reduction in the incidence of low birth weight (2.5 kg. or less) to less than 10%.

○ A one-third reduction in iron deficiency anaemia among women.

○ Virtual elimination of vitamin A deficiency and iodine deficiency disorders.

○ All families to know the importance of supporting women in the task of exclusive breast-feeding for the first four to six months of a child's life and of meeting the special feeding needs of a young child through the vulnerable years.

○ Growth monitoring and promotion to be institutionalised in all countries.

○ Dissemination of knowledge to enable all families to ensure household food security.

Child health

○ The eradication of polio.

○ The elimination of neonatal tetanus (by 1995).

○ A 90% reduction in measles cases and a 95% reduction in measles deaths, compared to pre-immunization levels.

○ Achievement and maintenance of at least 85% immunization coverage of one-year-old children and universal tetanus immunization for women in the child-bearing years.

○ A halving of child deaths caused by diarrhoea and a 25% reduction in the incidence of diarrhoeal diseases.

○ A one-third reduction in child deaths caused by acute respiratory infections.

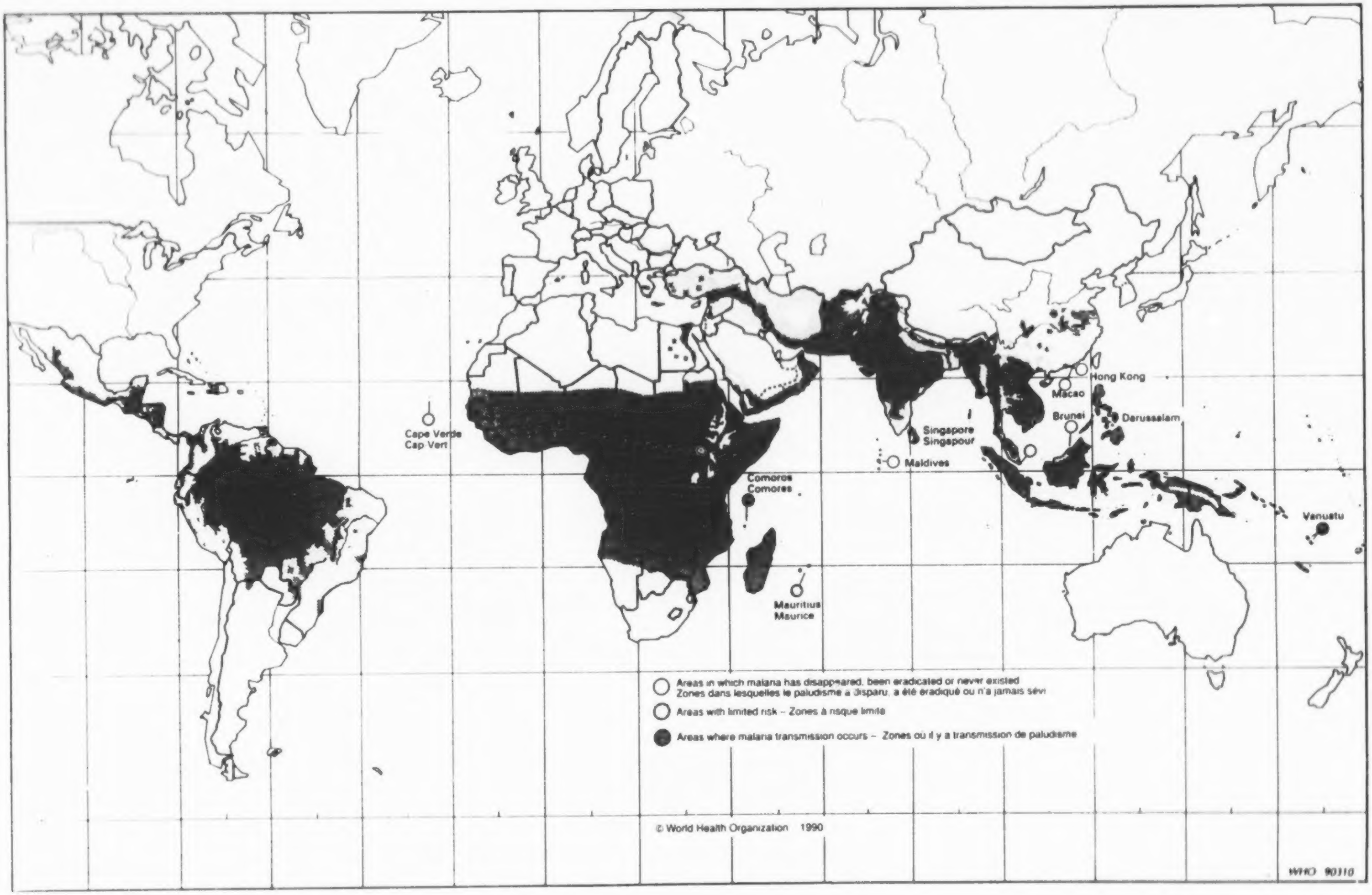
○ The elimination of guinea worm disease.

Education

○ In addition to the expansion of primary school education and its equivalents, today's essential knowledge and life skills could be put at the disposal of all families by mobilizing today's vastly increased communications capacity.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

EPIDEMIOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE STATUS OF MALARIA, 1988


Cape Verde
Cap Vert
Comoros
Comores
Mauritius
Maurice
Maldives
Singapore
Singapour
Hong Kong
Macao
Brunei Darussalam
Vanuatu
○ Areas in which malaria has disappeared, been eradicated or never existed
Zones dans lesquelles le paludisme a disparu, a été éradiqué ou n'a jamais sévi
○ Areas with limited risk – Zones à risque limité
● Areas where malaria transmission occurs – Zones où il y a transmission de paludisme
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Source: World Health Organization, 1990.
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SOME ENVIRONMENTAL THOUGHTS IN THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Importance of Protecting the Environment

Asked to put 12 main political issues in order of importance, respondents to an opinion poll throughout the European Community made protection of the environment second only to unemployment. Asked to grade how important it was 94% of those questioned thought environmental protection very important.

The five most important national and international issues per country (summer 1989)
Percentage who think issues very important

	(B)	(DK)	(D)	(GR)	(E)	(F)	(IRL)	(I)	(L)	(NL)	(P)	(UK)
Environmental Policy	**90**	**97**	**98**	**92**	**94**	**93**	**91**	**94**	**95**	**97**	**91**	**93**
Unemployment	94	95	95	93	98	97	98	96	92	94	95	94
Stable prices	87	84	90	93	93	83	93	89	91	—	94	86
Personal security	80	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arms limitation	75	79	89	86	87	—	—	82	—	82	—	—
Balance of payments	—	88	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pension security	—	—	95	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Education	—	—	—	88	—	96	—	—	—	—	—	—
Terrorism	—	—	—	—	95	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Social protection	—	—	—	—	—	94	—	—	—	—	—	—
Emigration	—	—	—	—	—	—	93	—	—	—	—	—
Northern Ireland	—	—	—	—	—	—	84	—	—	—	—	—
Tax reform	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	81	—	—	—	—
Site advantages	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	—	—	—
Pensions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	85	—	—	.
Equal rights	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	85	—	—
Law of labour	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	90	—
Housing/homeless	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	94
Health service	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	94
Health reform	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	—
Combating crime	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	94	—

See Country Identifications
in bottom table.

Better to Act Together on Environmental Policy, Thinks Public

Asked if Member States of the European Community should act collectively or individually to protect the environment, over three-quarters of those asked felt they should act collectively.

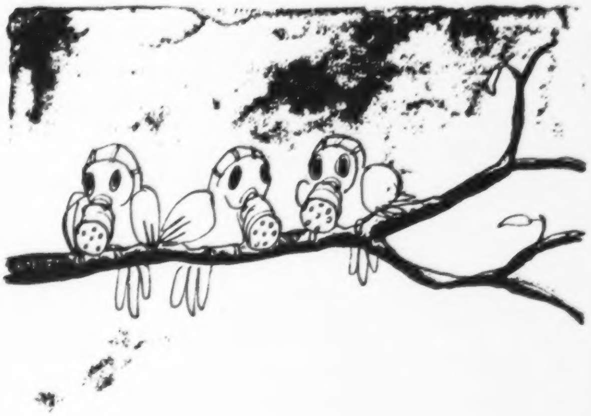
Opinion poll replies as to whether Member States should act together or separately to protect the environment (%)

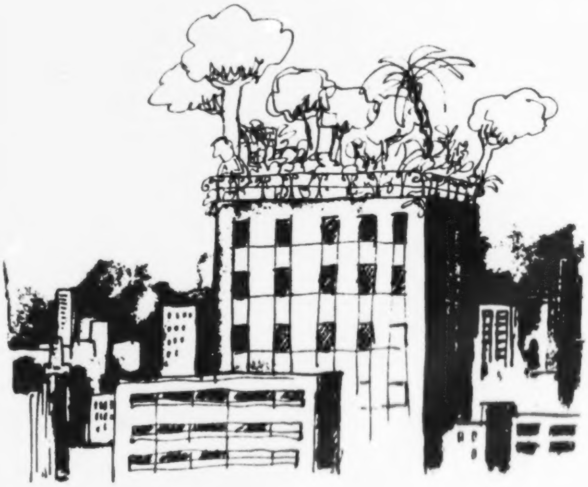
	Together	Separately	Don't know
Belgium	61.0	8.6	30.5
Denmark	70.4	12.0	17.6
FR of Germany	83.2	5.7	11.1
Greece	69.0	18.4	12.6
Spain	60.5	19.0	20.5
France	80.6	15.9	3.5
Ireland	64.4	29.1	6.5
Italy	83.3	7.7	9.0
Luxembourg	83.7	11.6	4.7
The Netherlands	91.0	7.2	1.8
Portugal	62.3	10.2	27.5
United Kingdom	76.0	16.5	7.5
EUR 12	77.1	12.2	10.6

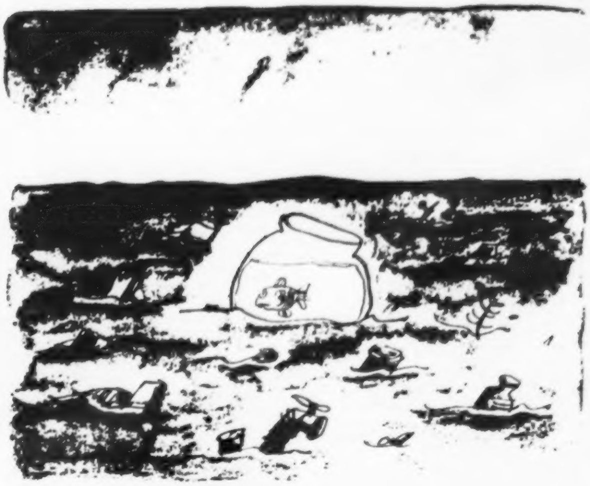
Source: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1990. Environmental Policy in The European Community. Pp. 21 & 34. Reprinted with permission.

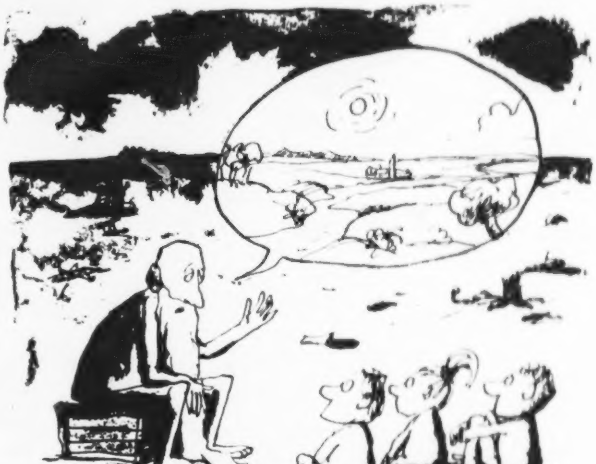
continued →

FROM THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY









Source: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1990. Environmental Policy in The European Community. Pp. 45, 49, 54, 56. Reprinted with permission.

A CALL FOR A COHERENT ATTITUDE TOWARDS COMPUTER CRIMINALS

The following constitues the Preface of a Council of Europe report, "Computer-Related Crime". European Committee on Crime Problems. Strasbourg. 1990.

PREFACE

The computer revolution has had — and continues to have — a profound impact on the social, political and financial institutions of almost every nation in the world. Electronic Funds Transfer systems now handle much of the world's international financial transactions and the personal computer has become a permanent fixture of the modern office. Plans are also afoot to develop living computer chips that can be implanted in the human brain to replace damaged cells. Ours is truly a brave new world.

But the computer revolution has also spawned new forms of abuses and crime. Hackers now traverse our global computer networks at will and with impunity; techno-ethics are virtually non-existent; and modern criminals exploit the loopholes in our existing legal system to evade prosecution. The computer may well become the Achilles' heel of the post-industrial society.

Historians remind us that the future is a direct outgrowth of the past. Unless we learn from the past, we are tragically committed to repeating it — and the future is fast taking shape. Based on present-day trends, here is what we can expect:

— If international political turmoil continues unabated, global computer networks and telecommunication systems are sure to attract the ire of terrorists and the disfranchised.

— Tomorrow's wars will be won or lost in our computer centres, rather than on the battlefields. The destruction of a modern nation's computer systems could throw it into the Dark Ages!

— In Orwell's *1984*, the citizens of Oceania lived under the watchful eye of Big Brother and his secret police. In today's world, we all stand under the watchful eye of our giant computer systems. In the West, all that stands between us and Big Brother is the delicate political fibre we call democracy; if it were to collapse, the electronic edifice for a dictatorial take-over is already in place.

— The computer revolution has given a small group of technocrats a monopoly over the flow of global information. In the information society, power and wealth are increasingly becoming synonymous with control over our data banks. We live in the dawn of the informational élite.

The computer revolution has provided tools with which to steal with impunity, control and manipulate the thoughts and movements of millions, and hold an entire society hostage. On the other hand, if properly employed, the computer could dramatically improve the lives of billions on this planet. The choice is ours. Humanity's future need not be one of computer crime and terror.

For all these reasons, it is important that governments take the necessary steps to agree on a coherent attitude towards computer criminals. The Council of Europe report constitutes an essential contribution to that fight. It is warmly recommended for further study.

August Bequai, Esq.
Washington, DC
April 1990

Mr. Bequai is a former Securities and Exchange Commission enforcement trial lawyer who [said The New York Times in 1986] writes and lectures widely on white-collar crime.

U.S. TRADE FACTS

The United States is the world's largest economy, the largest market, and the leading exporter and the leading importer. In 1990, merchandise exports contributed about three-fourths of real U.S. GNP growth.

Merchandise Trade

The following merchandise data for 1990 are at an annual rate, based on January-November, except as noted.

- U.S. two-way trade totaled $890 billion in 1990, with exports of $393 billion and imports of $497 billion.
- The 1990 U.S. trade deficit shrank to $104 billion, 32 percent below the 1987 deficit peak.
- U.S. merchandise exports rose to 7.2 percent of the nation's GNP in the first nine months of 1990 from 7.1 percent in 1989. That compares with 1989 shares for West Germany of 28.4 percent; Canada 22.6 percent; the United Kingdom 18.0 percent; and Japan 9.8 percent.
- In 1989, the United States accounted for 13.2 percent of world's merchandise exports and an estimated 16.5 percent of the world's merchandise imports.
- In 1990, total U.S. merchandise exports were comprised of 80 percent manufactured goods; 11 percent agricultural goods; and 9 percent primarily of mineral fuels and crude materials.
- Total U.S. merchandise imports in 1990 were comprised of 79 percent manufactured goods; 13 percent mineral fuels; and 8 percent agricultural and other goods.
- On average, more than 22,000 U.S. jobs resulted per $1 billion of U.S. merchandise exports in 1989.
- Merchandise exports accounted for nearly seven million jobs in the United States in 1989.
- About one in six U.S. jobs in manufacturing was probably due directly and indirectly to exports in 1989.
- From 1891 through 1970, the United States had an unbroken string of trade surpluses. After 1970, it had deficits in every year except 1973 and 1975.
- Canada was by far the United States' leading foreign market for exports in 1990, followed by Japan, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and West Germany. Canada was the United States' leading import supplier, followed closely by Japan, and then by Mexico, West Germany, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and South Korea.
- Capital goods, including aircraft, led U.S. exports, followed by industrial supplies and materials, then non-automotive consumer products, automotive products, and collectively, foods, feeds and beverages.
- The Commerce Department estimates that roughly one-third of U.S. manufacturing companies—slightly more than 100,000 firms —export manufactured goods.
- Two-thirds of U.S. merchandise exports are by U.S.-owned multinational corporations, with over one-third of these exports by the U.S. parent corporation shipped to their foreign affiliates.

Business Services Exports

The following services data for 1990 are at an annual rate based on January-October 1990.

- Exports of U.S. business services are more than one-fourth as large as U.S. exports of merchandise.
- Exports and imports of business services totaled about $119 billion and $88 billion, respectively, in 1990.
- In 1990, U.S. exports of business services accounted for about 2.8 percent of the nation's GNP. Travel service receipts and passenger fares accounted for about one-third of the total.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America,
Special Edition, Vol. 112, No. 2, 1991. P.32.

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PROFILES

The following table shows how U.S. labor requirements have changed since 1800.

(in hours)	1800	1935–39	1955–59	1980–84
Wheat (100 bushels)	373	67	17	7
Corn (100 bushels)	344	108	20	3
Cotton (1 bale)	601	209	74	5

The increase in U.S. yields for wheat, corn, and cotton is shown below.

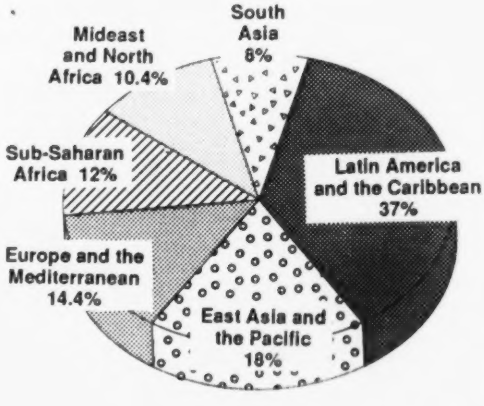
per acre	1800	1940	1960	1985–86
Wheat (bushels)	15	15	20	34
Corn (bushels)	25	29	55	118
Cotton (pounds)	154	253	446	630

U.S. Department of Agriculture.

Third World Debt by Region, 1988

Scope of Problem

Total Third World debt was about $1.2 trillion at the end of 1989. Brazil owed $113 billion, followed by Mexico ($103 billion) and Argentina ($62 billion). Others include Indonesia ($53 billion), Egypt ($50 billion), Poland ($42 billion), Nigeria $31 billion), and the Philippines (29 billion).



Source: World Bank. U.S. Department of State Dispatch, September 24, 1990. P.125.

Health United States 1989

Selected Highlights

- Between 1986 and 1987 overall life expectancy at birth increased from 74.8 to 75.0 years; life expectancy for black males remained unchanged.
- The percent of live-born infants weighing less than 2,500 grams has been essentially unchanged since 1980 at 7%. However, there are large differences among ethnic and racial groups. Black infants had the highest rate (12.7% in 1987), followed by Puerto Ricans (9.3%), Asians (6.4%), and American Indians (6.2%). Cuban, Mexican, and non-Hispanic white infants have rates between 5.6 and 5.9%.
- In 1987 the infant mortality rate was 10.1 deaths per 1,000 live births, 12% above the 1990 national goal of 9.0. Among black infants the infant mortality rate declined by less than 1% between 1986 and 1987 to 17.9; the fetal death rate increased by 2.4%.
- The age-adjusted death rate for heart disease, the leading cause of death, declined by 33% from 1970 to 1987; the age-adjusted death rate for stroke declined by 54% over this period.
- Between 1984 and 1987 the death rate for homicide increased by 39% for black males 15–24 years old to about the same level as in 1980. In 1987 the homicide rate for black males in this age group (85.6 per 100,000) was 7 times the rate for white and 43% above the 1990 objective of 60.0.
- The death rate for adults 25–64 years of age dropped from 533 per 100,000 population in 1977 to 423 in 1987. The 1987 rate was just 6% above the 1990 national goal of 400.
- Between 1984 and 1988 the sex and race distribution of persons 13 years and over reported as AIDS cases shifted somewhat. The percent female increased from 6 to 10, and the percent black increased from 25 to 29; the percent Hispanic remained at 14.
- Homosexual and bisexual activity as an HIV transmission category accounted for over 77% of the 36,000 deaths among white non-Hispanic AIDS cases 13 years of age and over compared to 38% of the 17,600 black non-Hispanic AIDS deaths and 53% of the Hispanic AIDS deaths. By contrast, 7% of the white non-Hispanic deaths, 37% of the black non-Hispanic deaths, and 24% of the Hispanic deaths were transmitted by intravenous drug use.
- In 1987, 29% of adults 18 years and over smoked cigarettes, just above the 1990 objective of 25%. However, between 1974 and 1987 age-adjusted prevalence of current smoking among persons 25 years and over declined by only 7% for those with less than a high school education compared with a 39% decline for college graduates.
- In 1987 national health care expenditures in the United States totaled $500 billion, an average of $1,987 per person.
- In 1988 the rate of increase in the medical care component of the Consumer Price Index was 6.5% compared with an overall inflation rate of 4.1%.
- Expenditures for HIV-related activities by the Federal Government increased from $6 million in 1982 to $1.5 billion in 1988.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

9. a. An Insistence on the Ethical and Moral Aspects

Doping is cheating.

Doping is contrary to the values of sport and the principles for which it stands: fair play, equal chances, loyal competition, health activity. Doping endangers the health of athletes, as they are using substances in ways that they were not designed for; sport is meant to be a life-enhancing activity not one that imperils life. In Resolution (76) 41 on the principles for a policy for sport for all -- the European Sport for All Charter of 1975 -- the practice of doping was described as "abusive and debasing".

From Council of Europe. Explanatory Report on the Anti-Doping Convention. Strasbourg 1990. P. 7.

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PROFILES continued

Young East European Diplomats Complete Program to Aid in Transition From Communism to Democracy

The text below are the opening paragraphs of an article by Peter Rapalus in The Stanford University Campus Report, December 5, 1990. P. 4.

Twelve young Polish and Hungarian diplomats on Friday, Nov. 30, said goodbye to Stanford and the Hoover Institution, where they spent 10 weeks in a pilot program designed to help smooth their countries' transition from communism to democracy.

The end of four decades of communist rule in many Eastern European nations resulted in a dearth of qualified diplomats who had no ties to the formerly ruling parties. For that reason, scholars in those nations are going straight from universities to high-level positions in government.

"We are all young, and we have very important responsibilities," said Julia Kircsi, 23, a member of the Hungarian Minister's Cabinet at a Hoover news conference. "Hungary is in a transition period with new leadership and has big problems finding people who have not been in the Communist Party."

Kircsi, three other Hungarians and eight Poles participated in the new Hoover program for young diplomats. They agreed the program helped them better understand how democracies and free-market economies work.

"Everyone wants to live in a democracy and a free-market system, but after 40 years (of communist rule) no one knows what that means," Kircsi said. "This has been a good opportunity to see how it works in practice and in theory."

The visitors practiced capitalism during trips to a Price Club store and through shopping in classified newspaper ads. Four of the Poles scraped together $150 to buy a used Volkswagen, and put more than 8,000 miles on the aging odometer in just a few weeks of sightseeing.

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. Items in PROFILES are indexed. Example: a PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18. OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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